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ABSTRACT

Many countries have recently launched massive programs to promote nation-wide adult literacy, but while these efforts have been commendable, it has been observed that neo-literates who acquire literacy through such programs have great difficulty in retaining it; hence an urgent need to develop suitable programs of post-literacy and continuing education has been felt. In 1980, Unesco's Institute for Education initiated a major research project designed to respond to this need. The research was carried out within the broad framework of lifelong education, and resulted in the series of case studies of which this volume is a part. The volume includes the following chapters: "The Project and Its Context" R. H. Dave, A. Ouane, D. A. Perera); "Post-Literacy: The Question How" (Dave, Ouane, Perera); "Concluding Remarks and Prospects for Further Action" (Dave, Ouane, Perera); "Issues in Post-Literacy" (A. Bordia); and "Some Curricular Aspects of Post-Literacy and Continuing Education of Neo-Literates" (H. S. Bhola). Eight appendixes supplement the report. Appendix 1 lists the countries participating in literacy efforts. Appendix 2 lists 25 documents consisting of: (1) international and regional approach papers; and (2) national case studies grouped under the headings of Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, and Arab States. Appendices 3-8 list the participants in the following meetings: the 1980 international planning meeting, the 1981 international review meeting and orientation seminar, the African regional program, the Asian regional program, the regional program for Latin America and the Caribbean, and the Arab regional program. (CML)

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LEARNING STRATEGIES FOR POST-LITERACY AND CONTINUING EDUCATION: A CROSS-NATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

Second Edition

R.H. DAVE, A. OUANE and D.A. PERERA

With contributions from
A. BORDIA, H.S. BHOLA

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Research Project of the Unesco
Institute for Education organized
in co-operation with the German
Commission for Unesco, Bonn

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FOREWORD

Since 1972, the Unesco Institute for Education (UIE) has been conducting basic as well as developmental research on the concept of lifelong education and its implications for educational reforms and development. The activities of the Institute have been specifically focused on practical implications of this concept for the goals and content of education, learning strategies, evaluation and teacher education, covering the broad spectrum of formal, nonformal and informal systems of learning. The needs of both developed and developing countries have been kept in view throughout the planning and conduct of these activities.

One of the important areas of application of the principles of lifelong education in developing countries is related to the programmes of post-literacy and continuing education. This book is an outcome of some of the Institute's work in this particular field. This second edition, revised and enlarged, contains transnational reflections and country experiences which will be utilised as illustrations for a handbook for practitioners in the field of post-literacy and continuing education in preparation at the time of writing.

A large number of developing countries have recently launched massive programmes of adult literacy on a national scale, complementary to efforts towards implementing the universalisation of primary education for children of school-going age. These are indeed commendable efforts towards the democratisation of education, despite the problems of financial and other resources.

It has, however, been observed that those neo-literate adults who acquire literacy through such programmes have great difficulty in retaining it, and some of them lapse back into illiteracy if timely follow-up measures are not taken. The same phenomenon of reversal has also been observed in the case of children who drop out of the formal school system prematurely. On the other hand, literacy is considered an important step towards the process of lifelong education and the achievement of a better quality of life, not only for every individual but also for the family and the community. Hence, one important question that needs to be tackled is how to enable neo-literate adults and out-of-school children to retain their literacy skills. It is essential that those who once acquire basic skills of reading, writing and computation make them permanent by reinforcement through post-literacy programmes.

The post-literacy programmes, however, are not just remedial measures to ensure the retention and stabilisation of literacy skills. Especially when they are developed in the context of lifelong education and with the purpose of improving the quality of life of the individuals and their collectives, they call for the continuation of learning in a flexible manner, for the constant use of the recently acquired literacy skills, and for the application of this learning to the larger processes of development. Thus, what is required is to develop programmes of post-literacy and continuing education to fulfil three major goals, namely, (i) *retention* and stabilisation of literacy skills, (ii) *continuation* of learning beyond initial literacy skills, and (iii) *application* of this learning to the improvement of aspects of personal, social and vocational life. Again, one of the most critical questions is: *How can this be done?*

In the light of these and other similar factors, the need to develop suitable programmes of post-literacy and continuing education has been keenly felt in all the countries engaged in literacy and mass education programmes. Responding to this situation, in 1980 the UIE initiated a major project of research and research-based training on the *Development of Learning Strategies for Post-Literacy and Continuing Education of Neo-Literates in the Perspective of Lifelong Education*.

In this respect, the broad framework of lifelong education proved very valuable, for example,

(1) in enabling programmes of literacy and post-literacy to be viewed as a *continuum* within

total education aimed at reducing inequality and at increasing the degree of *democratisation* in education;

(2) in advocating the acquisition of post-literacy and continuing education through not only the *formal* system but also the *nonformal* system and *informal* learning opportunities created by print as well as non-print media of both modern and traditional types;

(3) in emphasising that learning strategies should be *flexible* and provide *alternative approaches* to suit individuals and their groups in their local conditions;

(4) in ensuring that learning strategies pay due attention to certain *groups with special needs* such as women, young people, etc.;

(5) in encouraging an increasing degree of *independent* and *self-directed* learning;

(6) in insisting that learning should be *integrated* with the learner's personal, social and occupational domains of life.

Within this wider educational perspective, a series of case studies were undertaken in collaboration with field workers from various countries. The concrete experiences thus gathered from different regions provided valuable insights in identifying and categorising possible learning strategies and techniques. These studies also proved helpful in understanding the scope as well as limitations of different approaches and programmes, and in considering pre-conditions and possible obstacles to be kept in view in designing and implementing appropriate learning strategies. In order to disseminate as quickly as possible the research findings and related information, a series of international and regional orientation seminars were organised. These research-based orientation programmes were held for key personnel working directly in this field at the national level and having the responsibility of developing and implementing programmes of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education in their own countries. The case study authors were involved as resource persons in these orientation seminars and their draft reports used as basic learning materials. The case studies revised after feed-back from the orientation seminars are now published in a *UIE Series on Post-literacy Studies*, for wider dissemination among policy-makers, practitioners and researchers involved in this field.

This second edition of the first volume in the series presents a broad synthesis of different case studies as well as contributions made in various forms by the participants and faculty members of the international and regional orientation seminars conducted in the framework of UIE's integrated project of research and research-based training. The experiences and insight gained later through the regional programme for the Arab States have now been incorporated. and developments in the experiences analysed previously have also been taken into account. The new edition retains the international approach papers prepared by two eminent specialists, Mr. Anil Bordia and Professor Harbans S. Bhola, members of the international research network set up in the initial phase of this project. To them and to all the researchers who prepared national case studies as well as to all participants of the orientation seminars (whose names appear in the annexes and who provided such valuable contributions) and to their respective organisations and institutions, we are extremely grateful. This transnational synthesis is followed by five volumes of national studies grouped on the basis of the regional phasing of the project.

Our special thanks are due to the Ministry of Culture and Social Services, Government of Kenya; to the Ministry of Education and Culture, Government of India; to the Ministry of Education, Government of Venezuela; and to their respective National Commissions for Unesco not only for hosting the regional orientation seminars but also for providing support to these programmes in many ways. Likewise, we have enjoyed working with the dynamic local organisational teams set up by our co-ordinators Mr. David Macharia in Kenya, Mr D.V. Sharma in India and Professor Antonio Valbuena Paz in Venezuela, and we wish to record our deep sense of appreciation and gratitude for their valuable co-operation.

We express our gratitude to the State of Kuwait, to the Ministry of Education, to the National Commission for Unesco, to Mr Mohamed Al-Sane, Director of the Gulf Arab States Educational Research Centre and to Dr Yacoub A. Al-Sharah, from the Ministry of Education, for providing UIE with substantial extra-budgetary support which was used for translating all the documents into Arabic and for covering the cost of the simultaneous interpretation during the Orientation Seminar.

Without the generous extra-budgetary support received by the Institute from the Federal Republic of Germany through the German Commission for Unesco, this project, involving many researchers and participants from a large number of developing countries in different parts of the world, would not have been possible. We are deeply indebted to them for their support. Dr Hans Meinel, Secretary-General of the DUK took personal interest in this endeavour and provided active support and help right from the beginning of this project. Dr Hans-Wolf Rissom from the DUK took an active part in various aspects of the project, and made a valuable contribution. Ms Judith Schwefringhaus also extended help in the organisational and other aspects of both research and orientation programmes. Dr Gisela Steffens from DUK, who replaced Dr Rissom early in 1985, took great interest in the project and contributed much to its further development. Dr Traugott Schöfthaler who replaced Dr Steffens in 1986 not only continued co-operation and support but further intensified it for the enhancement of the project. In the initial stage, the UIE also received support from the German Foundation for International Development (DSE). In this respect, the participation and co-operation of Dr Joseph Müller was very much appreciated.

We also received valuable co-operation and guidance from Unesco Headquarters. Mr Paul Mhaiki and Dr John Ryan from the Division of Primary Education, Literacy and Adult Education, and Education in Rural Areas (ED/PLA) provided consultation and co-operation in planning and implementing various phases of the project. Dr Ryan helped us in conducting an international orientation seminar and a regional seminar for Latin America and the Caribbean, while Mr Camillo Bonani, Mr Jong Gyu Kim and Dr Arthur Gillette from the same Division helped in conducting the Pan-African, Asian and Arab orientation seminars respectively. Similarly, Mr B. Haidara and Mr Tai Afrik from the Unesco Office for Education in Africa (BREDA), Mr Raja Roy Singh and Mr T.M. Sakya from the Unesco Principal Regional Office for Education in Asia and the Pacific (PROAP) extended their co-operation in planning and conducting the African and Asian seminars respectively. For the Orientation Seminar conducted in the Latin American and Caribbean region we received co-operation from Dr María E. Dengo de Vargas from the Unesco Regional Co-ordination Office, Caracas, and Drs S. Romero Lozano, Donald Lemke and José Rivero from the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean (ORFALC). From the Unesco

Regional Office for Education in the Arab States (UNEDBAS) co-operation was extended by Abdulgadir Yousuf, Director and Abdel Wahid Yousif, Regional Adviser, in conducting the Orientation Seminar for the Arab States. We are grateful to all of them.

From UIE, Dr Adama Ouane, Mr Daya A. Perera and Mr A.M. Ranaweera worked intensively on this project. Dr Lekh Nath Belbase and Ms Mercy Abreu de Armengol, who were involved in its Asian and Latin American phases respectively, also helped to organise and conduct the programme for the Arab States. The Arabic studies were translated under the supervision of Dr Nabil Salame. Mr Peter Sutton and Ms Inês Pennacca undertook the production work of this revised version. Our thanks are due to all of them for their valuable work. It is not possible to name all the colleagues from the UIE who contributed substantially and in different ways. I wish to express my deep sense of appreciation for their active co-operation right from the inception of the project.

It is hoped that the experience of different countries in the field of post-literacy and continuing education presented in the synthesis volume as well as other volumes presentigg national case studies in the series will be of use to the policy-makers and practitioners involved in this vital aspect of education in developing countries.

Ravindra H. Dave
Director
Unesco Institute for Education

CHAPTER 1

THE PROJECT AND ITS CONTEXT

1. THE DESIGN OF THE PROJECT

1.1 A Lifelong Education Perspective

As its title indicates, the project of the Unesco Institute for Education on the development of learning strategies for the post-literacy and continuing education of neo-literates is conceived in the broad perspective of lifelong education.

Lifelong education is "a comprehensive concept which includes formal, nonformal and informal learning extended throughout the life-span of an individual to attain the fullest possible development in personal, social and professional life. It seeks to view education in its totality and includes learning that occurs in the home, school, community, and workplace, and through mass media and other situations and structures for acquiring and enhancing enlightenment". (1)

The project has in mind *the education of neo-literates*. One implication of a lifelong education perspective is that such education should enable those who are newly literate to improve their quality of life and attain the fullest possible development in their personal, social and professional lives. But personal development and improvement in the quality of life depend upon a number of other factors which also have to be considered, as illustrated in Figure 1.

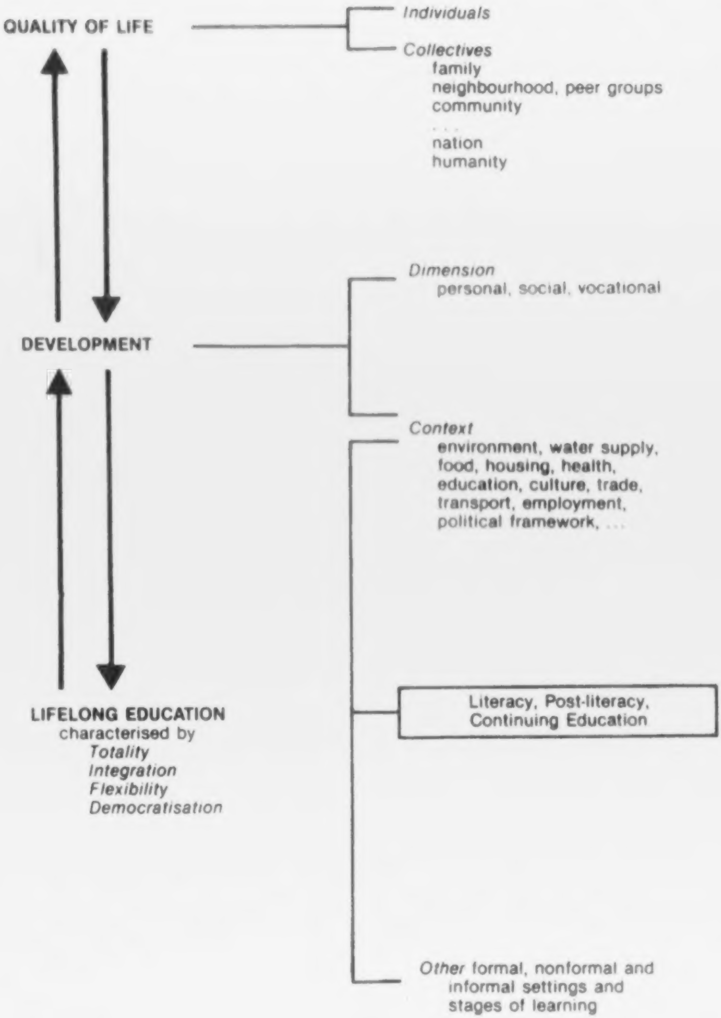
QUALITY OF LIFE
Individuals
Collectives
family
neighbourhood, peer groups
community
. . .
nation
humanity
Dimension
personal, social, vocational
DEVELOPMENT
Context
environment, water supply, food, housing, health, education, culture, trade, transport, employment, political framework, . . .
Literacy, Post-literacy, Continuing Education
LIFELONG EDUCATION
characterised by
Totality
Integration
Flexibility
Democratisation
Other formal, nonformal and informal settings and stages of learning

Figure 1:
Literacy, Post-literacy and Continuing Education in a Lifelong Education Perspective

The relations between *quality of life*, *development* and *education* are inter-active in nature. Education influences development and is in turn influenced by development. Both development and education take place in a particular context. Figure 1 draws attention only to *some* elements of this context, to serve as examples of what may need to be considered in developing learning strategies for neo-literates. In some contexts, certain elements may be of overriding importance for the design and execution of educational programmes. Figure 1 focuses on the educational programmes of literacy, post-literacy, etc., since this project is concerned with post-literacy. But other programmes cannot be ignored. In particular, formal education programmes at the primary stage need to be considered, if only for the reason that an inefficient primary stage may provide through its drop-outs a never-ending clientele for post-literacy and continuing education programmes.

While Figure 1 does not indicate the content of the terms "development" and "quality of life", it does show that development has many components and that quality of life applies both to individuals and their collectives. The concepts of "development" and "quality of life", must provide certain criteria for the evaluation of the post-literacy and continuing education programmes of which learning strategies are only a part. It is not suggested that education is the only variable affecting development nor that educational programmes by themselves will ultimately result in a better quality of life for individuals, families, etc. The perspective illustrated in Figure 1 implies a general criterion which may be framed in the form of a question, namely, "Does the programme of post-literacy and continuing education for neo-literates make a significant contribution toward improving their quality of life?"

Once a programme of post-literacy and continuing education has been conceived in this broad setting, continued application of the principles of lifelong education yields more specific criteria for its further development and evaluation.

Literacy, post-literacy and continuing education are a part of a lifelong education continuum, and as such should include the following characteristics:

Totality	*encompassing different stages and structures ...*
Integration	*articulation within the life-space and across the life-span ...*

Flexibility	*multi-modal learning strategies, self-pacing, self-evaluation ...*
Democratisation	*equality of access, comparability of achievement ...*

Such a broad framework has several implications for the design and implementation of any programme of post-literacy and continuing education, some of which are delineated in the next section.

1.2 Some Implications of a Lifelong Perspective for Post-literacy Programmes

Neo-literates tend to relapse into illiteracy if appropriate strategies are not employed to provide opportunities for them to continue learning - not only for the purpose of *retaining literacy skills* but also as a *means of acquiring an adequate level of basic education for development.* This reversion to illiteracy occurs not only in the case of adults who acquire literacy through short-duration nonformal programmes, but also with children who drop out of the formal school system *prematurely* after acquiring temporary literacy. It is therefore urgently necessary to work out ways and means of arresting the phenomenon of reversal by developing basic post-literacy programmes and services. But this is only a part of the total problem of post-literacy and continuing education.

It has now been universally recognised that the learning of literacy skills should be accompanied by the *larger developmental goals* of improving the overall *functionality* of individuals and their groups. These goals should include improvement of health, refinement of income-generating and productive skills, and raising of social and civic awareness. Thus, educational programmes both for *illiterate adults* and for *out-of-school children* are almost invariably geared to broader instructional objectives besides literacy, which in turn are expected to contribute towards the socio-economic and cultural development of individuals and their communities. But it has been observed that the typical 'single-shot' educational programmes of literacy which are often of necessity part-time or of short duration, are basically introductory in nature, and if the intended objectives of socio-economic and other developments linked with the *quality of life* of poor and backward populations are to be adequately served, it is essential that initial literacy programmes are systematically followed up by post-literacy and continuing education, for which appropriate *learning strategies* should be adopted. These strategies should *aim* at:

(1) *retention* and *stabilisation* of literacy skills;

(2) *continuation* of learning beyond the literacy skills in order to convey adequate basic education; and

(3) *application* of learning for personal, social and vocational development.

When viewed in the perspective of lifelong education, it may be observed that:

(1) the learning strategies focused on the above-mentioned aims should be *flexible* and provide *alternative approaches* to suit individuals and their groups in their local conditions;

(2) there should be an *increasing degree of independent* and self-directed learning as the new literate continues his learning and acquires basic education;

(3) the strategies should pay particular attention to certain *groups with special needs* such as women, youth, tribal populations and out-of-school children;

(4) the programmes of literacy and post-literacy learning should be viewed as a *continuum* of total education aimed at reducing inequality, increasing the degree of *democratisation* in education, and achievement of the larger goals of development associated with the quality of life; and

(5) such an education should not only be acquired through the *formal* education system, but also through the *non-formal* system and even through *informal* learning opportunities created by print media as well as non-print media of both modern (radio, TV, video, etc.) and traditional types so that the total *learning* continuum is *integrated* with the learner's personal, social and vocational domains of *life*.

1.3 The Focus of the Research

The preceding analysis has led to the formulation of overall goals for post-literacy and continuing education programmes and to the identification of some characteristics of the learning strategies needed to achieve such goals in respect of both adults and out-of-school children. Theoretical considerations of this nature - which could be further elaborated - have to be complemented by practical considerations to identify the focus of the intended research. In the context of the general problem referred to, i.e. the relapse into illiteracy of those who are made literate through formal as well as nonformal means, several practical questions such as the following arise: Considering the "totality" of a post-literacy and continuing education programme, at what point or level or segment can some immediate changes be made? What kind of changes are immediately feasible for the countries where the problem exists or is likely to arise? Of all the different types of personnel, from national policy-makers to field-workers in a community, which are most likely to use or profit from research? Which could be reached most easily by an international research institute? Given the overall goals of post-literacy, it was felt that the question of *how* to achieve the goals was the most important question to consider and, for that, learning strategies broadly conceived were felt to be a critical element. Hence, "the development of learning strategies" was selected as the focus of the research, the major group expected to utilise the findings being key personnel in the respective countries having national-level responsibility for designing and implementing literacy, post-literacy and continuing education programmes. An elaboration of the focus of the research is presented in Figure 2.

Development of Learning Strategies	Curricular Aspects	Management Aspects
	Clientele Needs Assessment Aims & Objectives Content Methodology Evaluation	Planning Administration Finance Structures Personnel

Figure 2: Aspects of Learning Strategies Selected for Study

A learning strategy is intended to serve a certain clientele and presumably there has been some form of needs assessment to identify the specific aims and objectives of the selected strategy. What content is relevant to the aims and objectives, and what specific methodologies are used to interact with the learners? Have any evaluative elements been incorporated to assess the impact, suitability of content, etc.? Answers to questions such as these were to be the main findings of the research. However, a learning strategy has to be implemented through certain infrastructures external to the curriculum system itself and requires additional resources. While such management aspects did not constitute the main focus, they were not ignored in the study. Figure 3 presents a synthesis of the theoretical and practical considerations which have been discussed so far.

1.4 The Overall Methodology of the Research and Research-based Orientation Programme

As stated earlier, the research study was focused on the development of learning strategies. A case-study approach was selected to collect data on concrete and practical experiences of specific learning strategies being tried in some countries. These case studies along with cross-national and regional approach papers were to constitute the principal resource material for the orientation seminars in which key personnel working at a national level on programmes of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education were expected to participate.

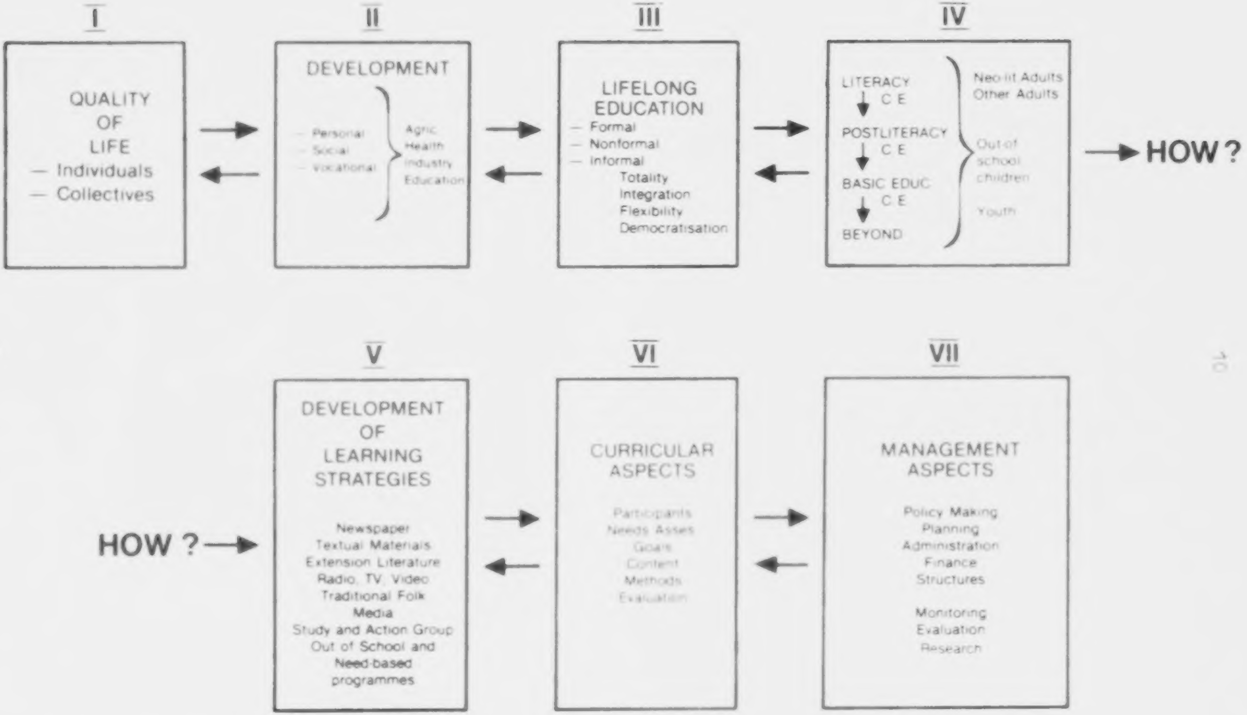
I
QUALITY OF LIFE
— Individuals
— Collectives
II
DEVELOPMENT
— Personal
— Social
— Vocational
Agric
Health
Industry
Education
III
LIFELONG EDUCATION
— Formal
— Nonformal
— Informal
Totality
Integration
Flexibility
Democratisation
IV
LITERACY
C E
POSTLITERACY
C E
BASIC EDUC
C E
BEYOND
Neo-lit Adults
Other Adults
Out of school children
Youth
HOW?
HOW ?
V
DEVELOPMENT OF LEARNING STRATEGIES
Newspaper
Textual Materials
Extension Literature
Radio, TV, Video
Traditional Folk Media
Study and Action Group
Out of School and Need-based programmes
VI
CURRICULAR ASPECTS
Participants
Needs Asses
Goals
Content
Methods
Evaluation
VII
MANAGEMENT ASPECTS
Policy Making
Planning
Administration
Finance
Structures
Monitoring
Evaluation
Research

Figure 3: Conceptual cum Operational Framework of the Project

The project was conducted in several phases. In the initial phase an international team of researchers from several countries (Annex 1) participated in the development of a design for conducting the case studies. The design document prepared during this initial meeting and also used for the subsequent regional studies, had four sections. The first made suggestions regarding a general pattern of case-study reports, house-style information, time-targets and other practical aspects of the case-studies. The second section gave the major dimensions of the case-studies, placing the learning strategies for post-literacy and continuing education in perspective. The third section, which comprised the principal instruments for the study, provided check lists for the analysis of each of the techniques or learning strategies which were to be studied intensively. The check lists covered such aspects as the scope, limitations, objectives, content coverage, clientele, production and distribution of material, motivation and involvement of participants, evaluation, and training of required personnel. The fourth and final section of the design document gave the background, objectives, procedures and other such aspects of the project as a whole. It also included a suggested outline for a case-study. The strategies identified for study were as follows:

(1) newspapers, wallpapers, and magazines for neo-literates;

(2) textual materials prepared for post-literacy studies;

(3) supplementary reading materials;

(4) libraries for new readers, mobile exhibitions and museums; (3)

(5) extension literature produced by development agencies such as health departments, agricultural extension services, etc.;

(6) out-of-school and award-bearing programmes parallel to the school system, and other nonformal courses of a vocational and general character;

(7) occasional programmes based on special needs and interests;

(8) correspondence courses;
(9) local study and action groups;
(10) radio, TV, video, films, etc.(New Media);
(11) traditional and folk media; and
(12) sports, games, physical culture.

All the case studies were conducted in accordance with this general design. In each case the researchers were drawn from the respective countries and were permitted to modify the design to suit their local conditions. The studies were undertaken by the researchers in co-operation with their colleagues and field-workers. The first set of case studies were prepared by researchers from several regions. This was followed by additional case-studies from Africa, Asia, Latin America, and the Caribbean. The specific strategies selected by each country for intensive study are given in Tables 1A and 1B.

The research-based orientation seminars, as the name implies, were organised mainly to disseminate the findings of the case-studies among key personnel in developing countries who were directing literacy, post-literacy and continuing education programmes. An international orientation seminar held in 1981 was followed by a Regional Orientation Seminar for Africa in 1982, for Asia in 1983, for Latin America and the Caribbean, in 1984, and for the Arab States in 1985. (Annex I). The design of these regional seminars based on the international seminar, was exemplified by the following elements:

(a) carrying out a set of preliminary case studies with the co-operation of local experts to ascertain national practices, as above;

(b) holding a meeting of the researchers to review the case studies and plan their use in the regional seminar;

(c) compiling supplementary resource material in the form of sets of extracts to indicate the work of other agencies working in the field;

(d) sending case-studies and other selected resource

Table I A: Strategies Selected for Intensive Study by the Countries Participating in the International Study

	Strategies / Countries	Brazil	Cuba	India	Mali	Nigeria	Tanzania	United Kingdom	Vene-zuela
1	Newspaper, Wall papers and Magazines for Neo-literates				X	X	X	X	
2	Textual Materials Prepared for Post-literacy Studies		X			X	X		
3	Supplementary Reading Materials			X		X		X	X
4	Libraries for New Readers, Mobile Exhibitions and Museums			X		X	X	X	
5	Extension Literature produced by Development Agencies such as Health Department, Agricultural Extension Services, etc.			X	X			X	
6	Out-of-School and Award-bearing Programmes Parallel to the School System, and other Nonformal Courses of Vocational and General Character	X	X				X	X	X
7	Occasional Programmes based on Special Needs and Interests	X						X	X
8	Correspondence Courses					X	X	X	X
9	Local Study and Action Groups	X		X	X			X	
10	Radio, TV, Video, Films, etc. (New Media)	X	X		X		X	X	X
11	Traditional and Folk Media	X		X					
12	Sports, Games, Physical Culture	X	X						
	TOTAL	6	4	5	4	5	6	9	5

Table I B: Strategies Selected for Intensive Study by the Countries Participating in Regional Studies

	Strategies / Countries	Algeria	Burkina Faso	China	Colombia	Egypt	Indonesia	Jamaica
1	Newspaper, Wall papers and Magazines for Neo-literates		X	X	X		X	X
2	Textual Materials Prepared for Post-literacy Studies	X		X			X	X
3	Supplementary Reading Materials		X				X	X
4	Libraries for New Readers, Mobile Exhibitions and Museums							
5	Extension Literature produced by Development Agencies such as Health Department, Agricultural Extension Services, etc.	X						
6	Out-of-School and Award-bearing Programmes Parallel to the School System, and other Nonformal Courses of Vocational and General Character			X	X	X	X	
7	Occasional Programmes based on Special Needs and Interests	X	X			X	X	X
8	Correspondence Courses		X	X	X			
9	Local Study and Action Groups			X	X		X	
10	Radio, TV, Video, Films etc. (New Media)		X	X	X	X	X	X
11	Traditional and Folk Media							
12	Sports, Games, Physical Culture							
	Total	3	5	6	5	3	7	5

Table 1 B Cont.: Strategies Selected for Intensive Study by the Countries Participating in Regional Studies

	Strategies / Countries	Kenya	Kuwait	Nepal	Niger	Senegal	Thailand	Vietnam
1	Newspaper, Wall papers and Magazines for Neo-literates	X	X		X		X	
2	Textual Materials Prepared for Post-literacy Studies		X	X				X
3	Supplementary Reading Materials			X	X			X
4	Libraries for New Readers, Mobile Exhibitions and Museums	X			X		X	
5	Extension Literature produced by Development Agencies such as Health Department, Agricultural Extension Services, etc		X	X	X	X		
6	Out-of-School and Award-bearing Programmes Parallel to the School System, and other Nonformal Courses of Vocational and General Character		X	X			X	X
7	Occasional Programmes based on Special Needs and interests		X		X	X		
8	Correspondence Courses						X	
9	Local Study and Action Groups			X				
10	Radio, TV, Video, Films, etc (New Media)			X		X	X	
11	Traditional and Folk Media							
12	Sports, Games, Physical Culture				X			
	TOTAL	2	5	6	6	3	5	3

material to seminar participants for study in advance of their meeting;

(e) ensuring the participation of the researchers in the orientation seminars where they were expected to play the dual role of resource persons and national participants;

(f) initiating the preparation of guide-lines for local-level action by each of the national teams to serve both as a concrete application of ideas gained during the seminar and also as a basis for follow-up action;

(g) soliciting the participation of regional organisations - who also prepared guide-lines for regional level action - to enhance the regional and sub-regional follow-up work;

(h) organising study visits as an integral part of the orientation seminar; and

(i) inviting the participation of appropriate international agencies with expertise in this field.

1.5 The Study and Use of the Findings

The case studies and cross-national approach papers (Annex 2) were to serve two major purposes. One was as the principal resource material for the orientation seminars. The other was to serve as the basis for elucidating innovative practices and discerning general trends in the development of learning strategies for post-literacy, in order to assist various countries in educational work such as curriculum development and the training of professional cadres for curriculum implementation. One of the items discussed during the review meeting of the international research team (Annex 1) was the possibility of preparing a synthesis of the findings from the case studies. Many aspects were identified. The synthesis presented in the following sections draws on these deliberations as well as on the plenary discussions during the orientation seminars and on the group reports and guide-lines for local level action which were outputs from the orientation seminars. Apart from the case studies and the cross-national approach papers, the synthesis presented below is also based on documentation for other seminars, and presentations made during the orientation seminars by the faculty. While this volume presents a synthesis of the findings and the cross-national approach papers, the case studies themselves are published in subsequent volumes.

2. POST-LITERACY: THE PARTICIPANTS. THE SIZE AND OTHER FACETS OF THE PROBLEM

In recent years the dual action of extending primary education and intensifying adult literacy has reduced world illiteracy to a present rate of 25 per cent. At the same time, mass literacy campaigns have enabled certain countries (e.g. Nicaragua and Ethiopia) to improve their literacy levels dramatically. However, although the percentage of illiterates has been reduced, their absolute number has increased. In 1970 there were 760 million illiterate adults (15 years +) in the world and in 1985, 889 million, 27,7 per cent of the adult population. If one considers that about 123 million children of 6-11 years do not go to school, it is possible that there may be a billion illiterates before the year 2000. Table 2 and Figure 4 provide a world view of the literacy situation.

Table 2: Number of Illiterates and Illiteracy Rates in 1985 for the Adult Population Aged 15 and Over

	Absolute number of illiterates aged 15 and over (in millions)	Illiteracy rates (aged 15 and over)		
		Both sexes	Men	Women
World total	888.7	27.7	20.5	34.9
Developing countries	868.9	38.2	27.9	48.9
Least developed countries	120.8	67.6	56.9	78.4
'Developed' countries	19.8	2.1	1.7	2.6
Africa	161.9	54.0	43.3	64.5
Latin America	43.6	17.3	15.3	19.2
Asia	665.7	36.3	25.6	47.4
Arab States	55.0	49.1	36.5	61.5
Oceania	1.6	8.9	7.6	10.2
Europe (including USSR)	13.9	2.3	1.6	3.0

Source: Unesco Office of Statistics, *The Current Literacy Situation in the World* (Paris: Unesco, July 1985).

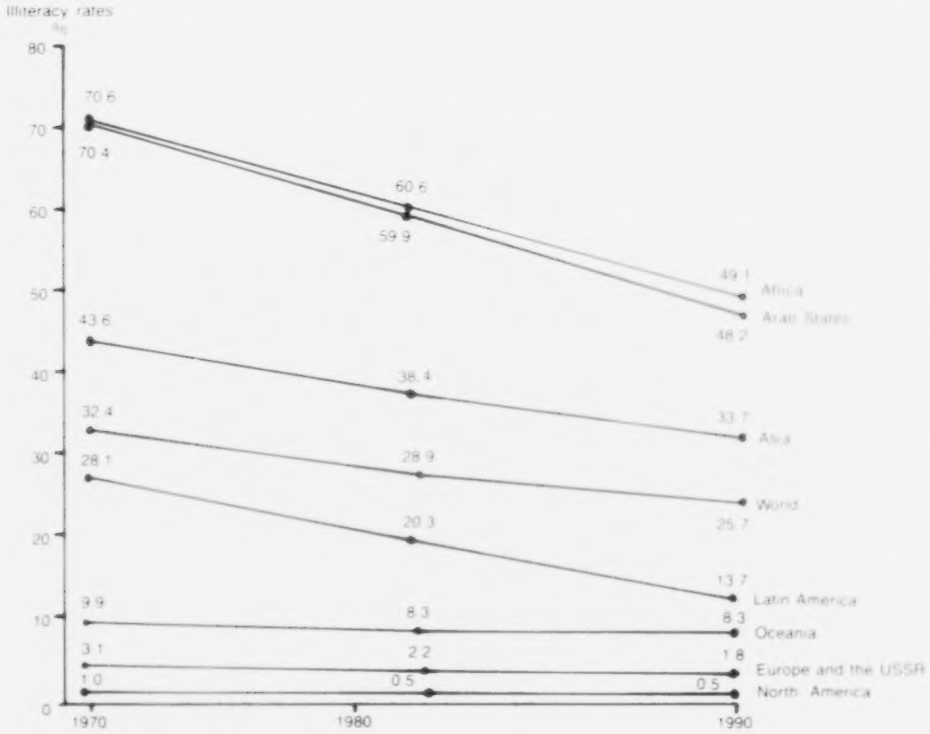

Figure 4: Evolution of illiteracy rates between 1970 and 1990 in the world and in the different continents for age-group 15 and over

Source: Unesco Office of Statistics, Estimates and Projections of Illiteracy, CSR-E-29, Paris, Unesco, 1978.

The illiteracy rate varies between different continents and regions; within a given region between different countries and even within a single country there could be variations depending on the location of the people, their socio-economic status and other such factors. Table 3 illustrates this variation of regional and national levels

Table 3: Range of Illiteracy Rates by Region

Region	Illiterates in Million	Illiteracy Rate (in Percentage)		
		Lowest	Highest	Average
AFRICA (South of Sahara)	162	17.2	91.4	54
ARAB STATES	55	15.3	78.2	49.1
ASIA (Excluding JAPAN, AUSTRALIA and NEW ZEALAND)	666	12	75	33.7
EUROPE	14	0.2	22	2.2
LATIN AMERICA	44	4.6	71.3	13.7

Source: Unesco Office of Statistics, The Current Literacy Situation in the World (Paris: Unesco, July 1985)

On the basis of literacy rates alone, it appears that the African and Arab regions have the largest obstacles to overcome But regarding the numbers of people concerned, Asia - with more than twice the number of illiterates in all the other regions combined - seems to be confronted by an equally large obstacle. However, as shown in Table 4, among the countries having the largest numbers of illiterates are to be found representatives of all developing regions. Additionally, even a cursory look at the range of illiteracy rates between countries shows that there is at least one European country (and perhaps more) with a higher rate of illiteracy than some countries of Asia, Africa, and Latin America. This introduces another significant facet of the problem of illiteracy, namely, that the rate of change of illiteracy rates is by no means uniform. Countries which apparently make rapid progress in reducing high illiteracy rates seem to stagnate for considerable periods at lower levels of illiteracy. Table 5 and Table 6 derived from it illustrate this fact.

Table 4: Countries with more than 10 Million Illiterates Aged 15+ in 1985

Country	Illiteracy rate (1985)	Number of illiterates	Proportion of world total	
	(%)	(millions)	(%)	(cum.%)
India	56.5	264	29.7	29.7
China	30.7	229	25.8	55.5
Pakistan	70.4	39	4.4	59.9
Bangladesh	66.9	37	4.2	64.1
Nigeria	57.6	27	3.0	67.1
Indonesia	25.9	26	2.9	70.0
Brazil	22.3	19	2.1	72.1
Egypt	55.5	16	1.8	73.9
Iran	49.2	12	1.3	75.2
Subtotal (9 countries)		669	75.2	
Other countries		220	24.8	
World total		889	100.0	

Source: Unesco Office of Statistics, 196

Table 5: Changes in Illiteracy Rates by Region

REGION	1960		1970		1980	
	Number of Illiterates in Millions	Rate in Percentage	Number of Illiterates in Millions	Rate in Percentage	Number of Illiterates in Millions	Rate in Percentage
AFRICA (excluding Arab States)	94,2	81 %	108	73.7 %	112	60.6 %
ARAB STATES	42,8	81 %	49,9	73 %	53,5	59.9 %
ASIA (excluding Arab States)	529	54 %	564	46 %	604	37.4 %
EUROPE (including USSR)	24,5	5.3 %	18,7	3.6 %	19	2.1 %
LATIN AMERICA and the CARIBBEAN	40	32.5 %	45,5	28.1 %	45	20.2 %
NORTH AMERICA	3,3	2.4 %	2,5	1.5 %	1,78	0.5 %
OCEANIA (excluding AUSTRALIA and NEW ZEALAND)	1,2	11.5 %	1,4	10.3 %	2,5	8.3 %
WORLD	735	39.3 %	783	32.4 %	814	28.9 %

Source: Unesco Office of Statistics, 1987

Table 6: Changes in Illiteracy Rates from 1960 - 1980

REGION	Decrease in the Illiteracy Rate		Rate of Decrease of Illiteracy
	1960-1970	1970-1980	
AFRICA (excluding ARAB STATES)	7.3	13.1	Accelerating
ARAB STATES	8.0	13.1	Accelerating
ASIA (excluding ARAB STATES & JAPAN)	8.0	8.6	Little change
EUROPE (including USSR)	1.7	1.5	Slowing marginally
LATIN AMERICA and THE CARIBBEAN	8.9	3.4	Slowing markedly
NORTH AMERICA	0.8	0.72	Almost steady
OCEANIA (excluding AUSTRALIA and NEW ZEALAND)	1.2	2.0	Accelerating slightly

Source: Derived from Table 5

The European and the North American regions, having extremely low rates of illiteracy and also relatively small numbers of illiterates, have not changed their illiteracy rate significantly over the last two decades, but there has been a slight further improvement. The African and Arab States, with initially very high rates of illiteracy and high numbers of illiterates, have significantly decreased their illiteracy rates over the last two decades, with the rate of improvement itself increasing.

Asia, with not so high illiteracy rates, but with a very high number of illiterates, has lowered its illiteracy by amounts comparable to the African and Arab regions, but at a slower rate. Latin America, with a much lower rate of illiteracy than the Arab States and a number of illiterates comparable to the latter, has decreased its illiteracy rate by an amount comparable to Asian, African and Arab regions during the first decade. But in the second decade, compared to Africa, Asia and the Arab regions, the change in Latin America is only about one third. Below a certain level of the illiteracy rate, further progress may be *very slow* if the same patterns of action and priorities continue.

Tables 3, 5, and 6 suggest a certain typology of countries which may be useful in drawing the attention of planners and policy-makers to significant aspects of the nature and magnitude of the problem of illiteracy in the respective categories.

Countries with Mass Illiteracy

Countries with a significant proportion of their population (of 15 years and over) illiterate, may be considered as belonging to this category. Taking an arbitrary level of 60 per cent, countries here would range from Botswana with 260,000 illiterates to India with nearly 209 million. Within this broad range, several sub-categories may be identified. Gambia and Guinea Bissau have small numbers of illiterates like Botswana, but their illiteracy rate is around 80 per cent. Niger, Somalia, Burkina Faso, and Yemen have not only larger illiterate populations of 2 to 3 million but also illiteracy rates of over 90 per cent. Several groups of countries can be identified within the illiteracy range of 60 to 80 per cent, using the illiterate population as a basis. Afghanistan, Algeria, Morocco, and Sudan have populations of 4 to 6 million illiterates, while Bangladesh, Nigeria, and Pakistan each have from 27 to 29 million illiterates. Egypt and Ethiopia with 13 and 16 million illiterates, respectively, come between these extremes. Table 6 suggests that most of these countries with a mass illiteracy problem may over the next decade reduce their illiteracy rate at a slightly faster rate but yet remain with a mass illiteracy problem unless there is a substantial change in policies and priorities - and the actions based on them.

Countries with Residual Illiteracy

Countries with less than 10 per cent of the population (of 15 years and over) illiterate, may be regarded as belonging to this category. Excluding the developed countries and Caribbean countries like Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Grenada, Guyana, and Trinidad and Tobago - which would of course fall within this category - some other countries which belong to this category are Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica, Cuba, Republic of Korea, Mauritius, and Uruguay. Again, Table 6 suggests that over the next decade the residual illiteracy will remain.

Countries Shifting from Mass Illiteracy

Countries belonging to this category may be defined as those having an illiteracy rate between 30 and 60 per cent. Many African countries may be included in this category. Those with smaller populations of illiterates and lower illiteracy rates are Congo, Gabon, Lesotho, Swaziland, and Zambia. Those with larger populations of illiterates and higher rates of illiteracy are Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Kenya, and Uganda. China, with 218 million illiterates and an illiteracy rate of 34 per cent, and Indonesia, with 29 million illiterates and an illiteracy rate of 43 per cent, stand by themselves. Again, Table 6 suggests that over the next decade most of these countries will reduce their illiteracy rates by about the same amount or perhaps less.

Countries Moving towards Residual Illiteracy

Countries with illiteracy rates from 10 to 30 per cent fall within this category. Examples are Colombia, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, and Tanzania, which have illiterate populations ranging from 1.5 to 3 million. Brazil, with more than 16 million illiterates and an illiteracy rate of 24 per cent, is an extreme case. Mexico, with 6.6 million illiterates and an illiteracy rate of 17 per cent, comes in between. Applying the trend suggested by Table 6, it appears that, over the next decade all these countries are likely to reduce their illiteracy rates - but by smaller amounts than hitherto.

Tables 3, 5 and 6 pertain to periods in which post-literacy programmes were not, in general, a significant feature. While all the countries in the categories identified above need to develop and sustain post-literacy programmes, each category may have its own emphasis as indicated below:

Category	Emphasis
Countries with Mass Illiteracy	- Universalisation of primary level education for children, and illiterate youth and adults, through both formal and nonformal means, with greater emphasis on the nonformal; - expansion of existing literacy programmes to service a wider clientele; - national campaigns to mobilise support for literacy, post-literacy and continuing education programmes; - post-literacy programmes for out-of-school youth and adults.
Countries with Residual Illiteracy	- Identification of illiterates and those who are likely to relapse into illiteracy; - development of special literacy and post-literacy programmes to service those identified; - development of continuing education programmes to provide mastery of new literacy skills required by a rapidly changing environment.
Countries shifting from mass illiteracy	- Universalisation of primary level education for children and illiterate youth and adults, through both formal and nonformal means, with greater emphasis on the nonformal; - expansion of existing literacy programmes to service a wider clientele; - post-literacy programmes for out-of-school youth and adults.
Countries moving towards residual illiteracy	- Increasing the efficiency of the formal system and greater democratisation by widening access to primary level education;

Category	Emphasis
	- maintenance of current literacy programmes with particular emphasis on disadvantaged groups; - post-literacy and continuing education programmes for out-of-school youth and adults.

3. POST-LITERACY - THE PURPOSE

It is generally accepted that the success of any programme is closely related to the clarity with which programme goals are identified. Literacy programmes seem to have an implicit goal, namely the eradication of illiteracy. But this only raises the further question, "What *is* illiteracy?". The terms "literacy" and "illiteracy" are acquiring new meanings which imply that illiteracy is becoming a significant problem even for the developed countries. It would appear that a literate person could in course of time become illiterate, not only due to the attrition of skills acquired but through the failure to acquire new skills needed in a rapidly changing world. An understanding of literacy seems a pre-requisite for an understanding of post-literacy. The case studies were designed to facilitate such understanding. Although definitions of literacy and post-literacy are not to be found in all the case studies, the descriptions of the programmes give some idea of the meaning attached to these terms. Definitions were also an item of discussion during the orientation seminars. The seminar documentation provided yet another source. The following comments are based on all these sources.

3.1 A Literacy, Post-literacy Continuum

Since the design was to gather information about learning strategies for post-literacy, it was to be expected that all the case studies would refer to a literacy stage followed by post-literacy programmes. But considering the history of attempts to eradicate illiteracy, it could not be expected that the case studies would provide many examples of post-literacy programmes conceived of as integrated parts of systems of lifelong education and therefore modelled in such a way as to meet all the requirements of such a perspective. On the contrary, most of the countries concerned, which have launched either massive campaigns or functional programmes, did not plan post-literacy programmes in advance. Instead of evolving as comprehensive, coherent sequels they have, by and large, emerged as *ad hoc* measures designed more to retain participants in existing programmes than to meet clearly defined objectives for specific groups.

A Starting Point - The 3R's

With respect to literacy, a critical element to be defined is the expected level and nature of the competences to be acquired. All the countries refer to basic skills in reading and writing. Many make specific reference to numeracy and computing skills. Few specify particular levels to be achieved. The following are some examples of the competences expected after completing a literacy stage:

Brazil

- ability to identify the content of the sentences and texts he/she reads;
- ability to write meaningful sentences and texts;
- ability to resolve situations, such as problems involving the four operations of arithmetic;
- ability to resolve situations involving measurement of length (metre, cm., km.), the reckoning of perimeters and measurement of capacity.

China

- ability to read and write 1,500 characters;
- ability to understand simple and popular newspapers and magazines;
- ability to keep uncomplicated accounts;
- ability to write informal notes.

It is not necessary to give further examples to show the emphasis on reading, writing, and arithmetic. But it is relevant to mention that among the participants of the orientation seminars there were those who would exclude numeracy from a definition of literacy.

The 3R's and Development

The concern of many of the countries goes beyond the mere acquisition of competences in reading, writing, and computation. Either they are to be acquired in a *real life* context or they are to be applied to acquire basic knowledge. In Burkina Faso, the *arithmetic notions* are to be connected with work activities. In Senegal, the masses are to make use of their language to obtain technical knowledge and an understanding of the politico-economic system of the country.

In a few of these countries, the acquisition of language skills is seen in a much wider perspective than implied by its functional use. This is particularly so in those countries where the literacy languages are not the elite or administrative languages. The transition from an oral to a written culture becomes an important goal. The wider use of the literacy languages by the elite, by the mass media, by the formal education system, by the administrators, is perhaps a long-term goal but a goal which is clearly being pursued. West African countries like Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger, and Senegal belong to this category.

Popular Education and Consciousness Raising

Many literacy workers, particularly in Latin America, view literacy as part of a popular education process which forms a whole and whose aim is to prepare the learner for decision making and power sharing. Popular education, while rooted in the political and cultural traditions of Latin America, has recently been shaped in particular by the influence of Paulo Freire's theory of liberation pedagogy. It therefore considers learning to read as a step towards political participation. As Paulo Freire has said in dialogue with Ira Shor on transforming education:

> *In liberating education, we do not propose mere techniques for gaining literacy or expertise or professional skills or even critical thought. The methods of dialogical education draw us into the intimacy of the society, the raison d'être of every object of study. Through critical dialogue about a text or a moment of society, we try to reveal it, unveil it, see its reasons for being like it is, the political and historical context of the material. This for me is an act of knowing, not a mere transfer-of-knowledge or*

> [illegible]
> work. (5)

Dysfunctional Literacy

The widespread use of new communications media, the proliferation of home and personal computers, the emergence of self-service banking facilities and other such developments are creating a type of inadequacy of skills among people in the developed countries which is increasingly being referred to as illiteracy. This is an illiteracy which results from the failure to acquire new communication skills which are becoming very common and perhaps even necessary for survival in certain environments.

A Continuum

While some countries restrict literacy to the acquisition of skills in reading, writing and computation, they regard this as only a stage in a continuum. Vietnam states that literacy is but the first rung of the cultural ladder, where the learner learns only to read and write . In all the countries, of course, a literacy stage is followed by a post-literacy stage (the countries were selected to ensure this). Describing the stages of literacy and post-literacy, some countries relate them to the formal education system. Venezuela regards those who have not reached Grade 3 level as being illiterate, and adult literacy work is referred to as adult primary education leading to adult secondary education and beyond. China refers to spare-time primary schools, spare-time secondary schools leading all the way to spare-time universities.

The criteria accepted by JAMAL (Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy) for functional literacy can be expressed as: "Being able to read and write to junior standard of primary school (the fourth level of JAMAL's graded readers). Using such mental processes as judging, assessing and generalising satisfactorily and applying the above mental skills for the gainful exploration and one's environment." (4). In Tanzania and Indonesia, where Departments of Nonformal Education are responsible for literacy and post-literacy work, different ways of identifying the stages have been developed. Tanzania has specific tests which mark each level of achievement and are regularly administered all over the country. Indonesia has a graded series of texts - *Kejar Paket A* - which is used to specify the different levels.

As stated earlier, the defining of literacy and post-literacy was one of the subjects for discussion during the orientation seminars. The definitions given by the case study authors were supplemented by further examples from the participants. All these seemed to indicate diversity of views, reflecting perhaps more the variety of practical needs of particular countries than simply the failure to tie down an elusive concept. To some countries like Niger, the distinction between literacy and post-literacy is an artificial one. Their learning centres are called "Lifelong Education Centres". To China and Vietnam, literacy is only a starting point from which a rich variety of possibilities open up by means of adequate nonformal provision. While most countries may not have developed the infrastructures to support the overall goals they have in mind, the idea of a continuum seems firmly established. Variation arises with respect to the segments of this continuum which are labelled by such names as pre-literacy, literacy, post-literacy, complementary education, spare-time primary school, etc. Depending on the progress made, a country may change the particular segment labelled *literacy* or *post-literacy* - as Cuba has, for example, having taken its entire working population through the *6th Grade*, and has now set for itself *the battle of the 9th Grade*.

While the operational methodology structured by MOBRAL (Brazilian Movement for Literacy) took into account the difficulties met with in previous experiences, it also took advantage of the highly positive aspects of each. Initially, when literacy and lifelong education were mentioned, the implication was that literacy was the first step in the educational process, to be followed by ever higher levels of learning. At a later time, functional literacy began to be considered as a stage in the educational process, which need not to be the first.

In summary, it may be said that the stage of literacy is characterised less by its duration than by its content. It is determined as much by the starting point as by the destination. It may have to be specific to the country concerned and may even vary within a country. There is, in fact, no need for a universally accepted definition of literacy, (whatever problems this lack may create for educational planning or statistical comparisons internationally).

3.2 Some Elements of a Post-literacy Stage

Although definitions may vary, it is perhaps possible to identify certain elements in common, to indicate differences of emphasis and to evolve a framework within which the understanding of literacy and post-literacy may be enriched. Some countries like Mali, Senegal, and Tanzania use a definition of post-literacy adopted during a meeting of experts organised in Dakar in April 1977:

> *By post-literacy we understand all measures taken to enable the neo-literate to put into practice the skills acquired and to increase the knowledge obtained during the previous stage. Thus he will be able to go beyond what he has learned and to use his new knowledge; and above all, by learning how to learn and how to make decisions, take an active part in the continuing process of development and mastery of his environment.* (6)

A follow-up meeting, held in Mali in 1980, redefined the concept of post-literacy as follows:

> *... post literacy, a component of lifelong learning, consists of a series of measures and actions which enable the new literate to exercise new competences and responsibilities, increase his knowledge, and embark on a process of individual and collective development to the end of acquiring a greater control over his environment.* (7)

The idea of continuing education is implicit in both these definitions. Likewise, both definitions emphasise the application of skills previously acquired, in the context of post-literacy. This statement of application by the learner of his/her skills appears a necessary condition for a programme of post-literacy. But, as may be clear from the previous section, this possibility is not necessary in some countries with respect to a programme of literacy. Both foregoing definitions of post-literacy give some idea of the context in which the skills are to be applied and what is to be obtained by such application. It is clear that no narrowly conceived, academic context is intended. The use of such expressions as taking "an active part in the continuing process of development", "mastery of his environment" and "exercising responsibilities", indicates that the goals of a post-literacy programme are very broadly conceived. While neither definition is explicit in this respect, the references to *all measures* and *a concerted set of measures and actions*, and the contexts in which these definitions were drawn up, imply that post-literacy programmes include the use of formal, nonformal and informal modes, resources and arrangements. But this would be true for literacy programmes as well.

A definition formulated by one of the working groups during the first international orientation seminar (Annex 1) introduces another element:

> *Post-literacy is an integrating learning process to assist literates to retain, improve and apply their basic knowledge, attitudes and skills for the satisfaction of their basic needs, and to permit them to continue education through a self-directed process for the improvement of their quality of life (personal and societal).*

This definition, apart from other considerations, introduces an element of autonomy on the part of the learner. Self-directed learning is different from self-learning and implies certain competences of which the ability to plan and organise one's own education is particularly important. It is possible for an illiterate adult to be or to become a self-directed learner with respect to literacy, though not in the sense implied by the above definition. Therefore, self-direction in learners cannot be regarded as definite for the post-literacy stage. But if the resources used for learning are stipulated to include written material, then self-directed learning opens up a much wider field and appears as a methodology which may be expected of learners at the post-literacy stage.

The last definition also refers explicitly to a characteristic of post-literacy not included (but perhaps implied) in the earlier definitions cited, namely, that it is an "integrating learning process". There is undoubtedly here a close relation to the aspect of the application by the neo-literate of the skills acquired. Apart from the ability to read, write and compute, learners acquire other related skills such as taking part in discussions, leading group meetings, using a library, searching for information and using extension services. Again according to the last definition, it would appear that the post-literacy stage is characterised by the co-ordinated use of all these skills for definite purposes. While such co-ordinated use may occur even during the literacy stage, as some countries conceive literacy, it certainly seems a necessary condition for the post-literacy stage.

In trying to distinguish between literacy and post-literacy, it is necessary to consider not only formal definitions but other views. B. Dumont suggests a three-dimensional notion of post-literacy, as follows:

> *Length. The length dimension refers to all the various materials such as newspapers, brochures, leaflets, and books for the neo-literate.*
>
> *Width. This dimension refers to the environment in which the neo-literate has to operate. It is concerned with such aspects as the official status of the literacy languages, the existence of a literate environment, the availability of general and special reading material in the literacy languages, and the encouragement of writing. Action in this dimension is not generally within the purview of literacy workers.*
>
> *Depth. This dimension refers to the participation of the neo-literates in their own development.* (8)

The following view expressed by P. Freire conforms to the holistic view of Popular Education and can be related to the *width* and *depth* dimensions of Dumont:

> *Literacy encompasses both basic reading and writing skills as well as an ability to know and cope with reality in the everyday world.... Both the alphabetization phase and the post-alphabetization phase, which overlap, are dependent on a unique paradigm which can be characterized as a decodification and subsequent re-codification pattern of learning events.*
> ...
>
> *Decodification is an attempt on the part of ... out-door educators: (a) to break down the code or culture of the adults, (b) to question previously taken-for-granted ideas about their way of life, and (c) to identify the extent of their involvement in their own destiny.* (9)

This view focuses attention both on the context in which literacy and post-literacy programmes are organised and on the goals of these programmes. It can be understood as a possible interpretation of taking "an active part in the continuing process of development and mastery of his environment". In this conception, literacy and post-literacy programmes cannot be neutral with respect to the socio-cultural, political, and economic milieus. The significance of the concept of "transfer of responsibility", a major goal of most literacy and post-literacy programmes in francophone African countries, can be well appreciated in this context. The educational heritage of these countries from colonisation and their multi-lingualism has created a situation in which a "foreign" language is designated the official language at the expense of local languages. This results in a transfer of prestige and the marginalisation of local languages, in spite of their considerable significance nationally. This linguistic discrimination confines the usage of local languages to the nonformal literacy programmes, which results in the majority of the population of these countries remaining isolated from the employment system. Therefore, one can understand these countries' insistence on the transfer of responsibility and competence to neo-literates coming from literacy centres as well as the necessity for creating and maintaining a favourable environment for written communication in the local languages.

H.S. Bhola and A. Bordia - in their papers presented later in this volume - comment on literacy and post-literacy from more practical standpoints. Bhola visualises four categories of post-literacy programmes according to their functions, as follows:

- literacy retention;
- second-chance formal education;
- systemic integration of literacy within social, economic, and political structures; and
- socialisation for an ideal society. (Bhola, p. 193-194)

The evidence from the case studies and a study of accepted definitions indicate that post-literacy programmes are definitely moving away from pure and simple literacy retention. This conceptualisation of Bhola's introduces a further element, which may assist in delineating the stage of post-literacy, namely its relation to formal education. This is a particularly important aspect, considering that a significant part of the post-literacy clientele are school drop-outs.

Bordia advocates a very practical approach to literacy, post-literacy and formal education. In his view what is significant is not the programme "label" but the content and objectives attainable under given conditions. In his *Matrix of Levels of Basic Education and Post-literacy Programmes* (p. 198), he identifies what may be regarded as a series of levels of literacy, each of which is followed by an appropriate post-literacy programme. It is, in effect, a literacy/post-literacy continuum adapted for practical use.

In summary, the following properties may be postulated of the stage of post-literacy, although not all of them may be said to be characteristic of it:

(1) It is part of a continuum. As to which segment of this continuum constitutes the stage of post-literacy varies with the country concerned.

(2) It is the stage characterised by the goal of skills application for development and a better quality of life. The goals of post-literacy programmes extend much beyond mere retention and continuation of literacy skills.

(3) It is the stage characterised by the possibility of a self-directed approach using a variety of resources including written material for independent learning.

(4) It is the stage which provides opportunities for re-entry into the formal system of education or provides courses equivalent to some of those in the formal system.

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CHAPTER 2

POST-LITERACY: THE QUESTION HOW

1. LEARNING STRATEGIES IN RELATION TO OTHER FACTORS

While the focus of this study was the development of learning strategies, the research itself as well as the research-based training called for an awareness of the relation between the learning strategies identified for the study and other factors. Two important factors, i.e. the clientele and the objectives of post-literacy, have been briefly examined in the first chapter. Figure 5 illustrates these and other major factors which need to be considered from the point of view of curriculum development. Although content was not a major focus of the study, the case studies do indicate content, as may be seen, for example, from the studies on Burkina Faso, Mali, and Niger. Some aspects to be considered in the selection of content, the development of delivery systems, the design of evaluation procedures, and other related curriculum matters are treated by H.S. Bhola later in chapter 5 below.

2. THE SELECTION AND GROUPING OF LEARNING STRATEGIES

The term *learning strategy* is often used to refer to the pattern of actions of an individual who, in the course of his learning, makes good use of his learning skills and the various resources available to him (to achieve certain learning objectives). A strategy implies objectives and options, which in turn have implications for action. Where an individual learner is concerned, these implications are at an individual level. In this study, however, *learning strategy* is not used to refer to a pattern of action at the level of the individual neo-literate learner only. Where the individual learner is concerned, even a newspaper or a book constitutes a resource for learning. But at a national level, in the majority of the countries where this study was conducted, a choice may have to be

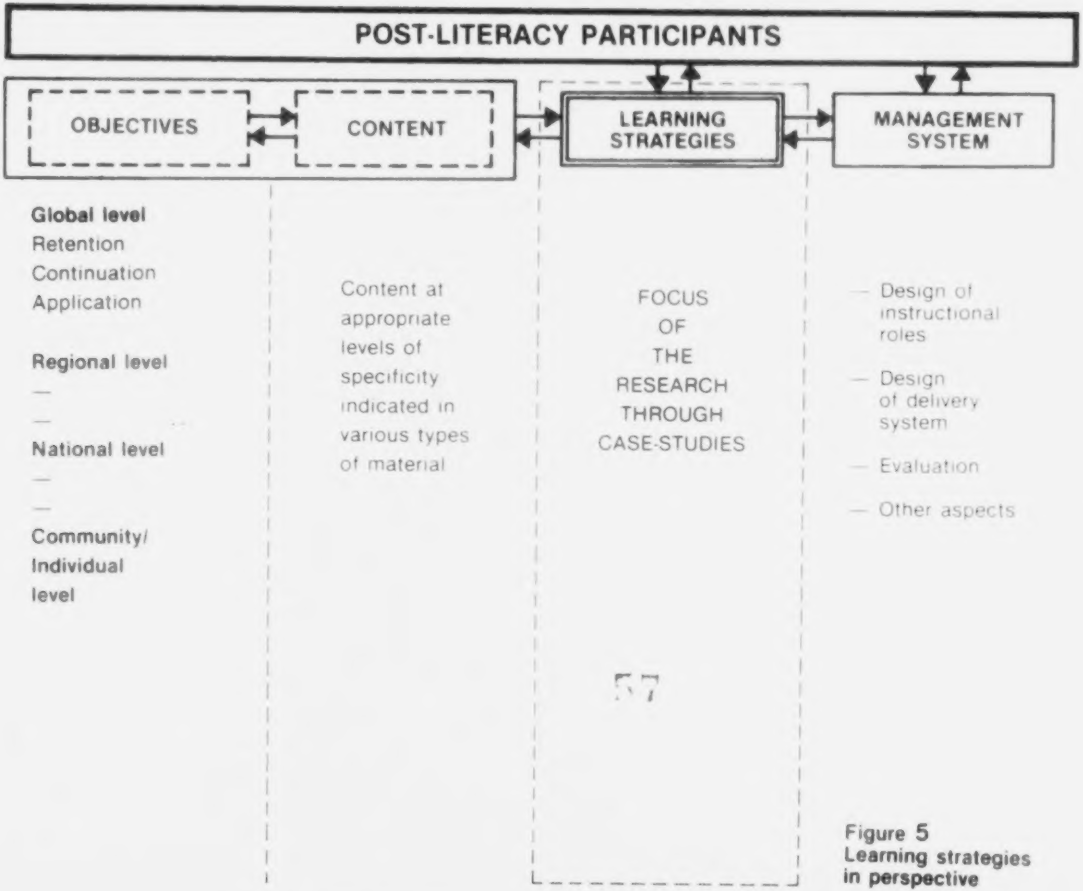

POST-LITERACY PARTICIPANTS
OBJECTIVES
CONTENT
LEARNING STRATEGIES
MANAGEMENT SYSTEM
Global level
Retention
Continuation
Application
Regional level
—
—
National level
—
—
Community/ Individual level
Content at appropriate levels of specificity indicated in various types of material
FOCUS OF THE RESEARCH THROUGH CASE-STUDIES
— Design of instructional roles
— Design of delivery system
— Evaluation
— Other aspects

Figure 5
Learning strategies in perspective

made between rural newspapers, radio programmes, libraries, etc. The selection of a rural newspaper at a national level has broad implications and in many cases may even be said to largely determine the learning strategy at the level of the individual learner. Therefore, at the level of national decision-making, opting for a newspaper, a library, supplementary readers, etc., may be regarded as crucial learning strategies for programmes concerning the post-literacy and continuing education of neo-literates.

In the sense in which *learning strategy* is used in this study, the reference is not to an individual learner but to whole classes of learners. Hence the points referred to earlier (viz. objectives and options) are considered in this study mainly with respect to classes of learners. It was from this point of view that learning strategies for the post-literacy and continuing education of neo-literates were identified for intensive study.

A major topic of discussion during the planning meeting of the international research team (Annex 1) was the selection of so-conceived learning strategies for intensive study by them. Preliminary papers submitted by the members of research teams, in which current programmes and practices were briefly reviewed, represented a significant contribution to the development of the project. The planning group examined these concrete experiences in view of the need to move towards a system of lifelong education, as exemplified by characteristics such as those referred to earlier (pp. 6-7). The strategies selected for study by the individual countries do not necessarily indicate any order of priority on the part of the country concerned. Nor does it mean that they are the only strategies being used in the particular country. Tables 1A, 1B and 1B Cont., (pp. 13, 14 and 15, above) which give the choices made by the countries, represent a collective decision concerning the following factors:

- the overall objective of the project, among others, to gather practical information about a wide variety of learning strategies which may be useful to national-level workers engaged in the field of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education;
- the judgement of the researchers concerned as to the value of reporting on particular strategies employed in their countries;
- the feasibility of conducting the studies;

- keeping the length of the study within the agreed limits.

An analytical approach was decided upon as the most convenient for the different groups to use for a detailed study of all aspects of the various learning strategies. But it was also necessary to have some grouping of the possible strategies. It is therefore hardly surprising that the criteria of selection and grouping are not mutually exclusive, and that the case studies may appear to have lost some of their dynamism. Sometimes the form of communication (e.g. print media) determines the grouping made, sometimes a structural feature (e.g. out-of-school programmes parallel to the formal system, or local study and action groups); in other cases, the learning objectives under examination constitute the determining factor (e.g. strategies aiming at retention, continuation, or application).

If there is one thing which has become apparent from the study, it is the indivisible nature of education. The learning process which has been under study is a conjunction of the totality of the strategies mentioned, which involve each other at the level of objectives, contents, forms of planning and organisation, structures, etc. Furthermore, there are no particular strategies or media which are inherently superior to others, and all those who undertake the implementation of these programmes must do so with the profoundest humility and a spirit of exploration. One thing seems certain: the possibilities of action are so numerous and so extensive that no single medium can of itself do full justice to them; efforts must therefore be made to use more than one medium. This should be done in such a manner that a new system of learning is created; in other words, such that networks of mutually supportive learning are organised.

What follows is the fruit of the collective reflection embodied in the case studies and permeating the working group discussions of the orientation seminars, which were constituted to analyse post-literacy learning strategies grouped together according to the various criteria referred to previously. Each group of learning strategies has been examined with respect to each of the following aspects:

- participants
- objectives
- content

- modes of preparation, organisation, and distribution
- problems and difficulties which were encountered
- innovative aspects and solutions which have been envisaged.

3. LEARNING STRATEGIES USING PRINT MEDIA

Under this heading we include all reading material for neo-literates, e.g. complementary reading material, extension literature, the rural press, or the wall-newspaper. A number of further classifications could be made, based on factors such as periodicity, publication form (brochures, books, booklets, leaflets, calendars, posters, rural newspaper, wall-newspaper, etc.), or the goal envisaged (follow-up material, extension literature, complementary reading material, consolidation material, didactic material, etc.). This type of material is often considered as the means *par excellence* of achieving the immediate post-literacy objective, i.e. the prevention of a relapse into illiteracy (by consolidating the knowledge acquired, and gaining knowledge and skills through participating in continuing education). It is evident that other strategies, i.e. those relying on other forms of media, contribute in a complementary or parallel manner to the same objectives. "When it is a matter of presenting information in an accessible manner there are few forms as suited as the book, which is not cumbersome, relatively cheap to produce, to store and to transport, which is permanent, easy to handle, and not dependent (for its use) on a source of electricity or on a technician. It offers each person the possibility of moving at his or her own mental pace, of pausing, or re-reading, of savouring and of studying without an implacable machine interfering with its own search mechanisms, or its own cadence, measuring the time past in terms of francs or dollars". (1)

This category will be treated under two main headings:

(a) The rural or community press

(b) Texts, extension literature and other similar reading material

3.1 The Rural or Community Press

This generic term covers all forms of written communication: rural and wall-newspapers, leaflets, and periodicals. The rural press is both an important source of reading material and a mode of communication which is accessible to the neo-literate. The rural newspaper was very early on perceived to be a major tool of extending fundamental knowledge and as a propitious point for applying it.

> *" The rural press is part of the reading material which enables neo-literates to maintain and improve their knowledge. It has the advantage over the book of being more topical: within the limits imposed by the frequency of its publication, it offers, among other things, information and stimuli for reflection on the events of the moment, and thanks to readers' letters it is livelier and more personal, being a means of dialogue and discussion between readers and editors. The hypothesis is also put forward that the impact of the printed word, which is the substance of the rural press, may be greater than that of audio-visual media because a newspaper can be closer to the source of training advice and therefore a better carrier of relevant information."* (2)

An attempt will be made in the following pages, within the limits of this study, to present a panorama of the rural press in terms of its evolution, its characteristics, its objectives, its content, its target population, its production and distribution modalities, and also of the major problems with which it is confronted and the various solutions tried out.

Evolution and Characterisation

Rural newspapers are generally born not from the desire to produce a strictly journalistic press, but rather as a response to an urgent need for simple, appropriate reading matter able to reflect the many facets of day-to-day and local news. Most of the papers surveyed have come into being fairly recently and have been launched to support the various worldwide campaigns against illiteracy. Most of the African rural papers were started after 1971. A common feature of the rural press is its periodicity. Hardly any paper in Africa appears daily. Weeklies are almost non-existent, being confined to the few monolingual countries of the continent (which include, among others, Burundi and Rwanda). Most papers appear monthly, albeit irregularly; there are only a few isolated cases of bi-weekly papers. The problems inherent in such periodicity are consequently similar in the various countries studied and will be considered later. With just a few exceptions, the papers aim primarily at contributing to post-literacy and lifelong education. The others aim above all either to contribute to the development in the wide sense of the word or to the distribution of news of general interest or of national policies.

Apart from the papers of India and Indonesia - two densely populated countries - the papers have a limited public, a fact which is reflected in their circulation, which ranges from 1,000 to 10,000 copies. There are only a few papers which have a more substantial circulation: *Elimu Haina Mwisho* in Tanzania (100,000) and *Kibaru* in Mali (25,000). Most of the rural publications have a tabloid format; their size varies from that of the village leaflet to up to four pages (seldom more).

In the majority of the rural papers, one observes a tendency to devote a fixed page to each thematic field. Tanzania, for example, has the following pattern:

> *The front page carries national and sometimes international or local news which is of general interest to its readers. An attempt is always made to interpret the news and relate it to local needs. The second page carries news from regions covered by the newspaper. The news on this page reports on development activities with a view to encourage and stimulate readers to similar undertakings. The third page carries additional news of general interest, letters to the editor, commentaries and announcement. The fourth page is known as a "Do it yourself", "Improve yourself" page. This carries "Serving articles" or "How to ..." e.g. "How to grow better cotton", "How to make a chair", "How to make a wheelbarrow", "How to apply fertilizers", etc.* (3)

The second page of *Kibaru* is devoted to readers' letters, as is known to all of those familiar with this newspaper.

The choice of the language of publication also constitutes a pertinent element to take note of. The states concerned being characterised by an often complex multilingualism, the choice of the language of publication takes on a significant value. The alternatives are numerous, according to the objectives being pursued. "Should the newspaper choose a highly local language to reach the people more effectively? Or a more widely used language in the hope of reaching more people and eventually creating a more widely used information vehicle?" (4)

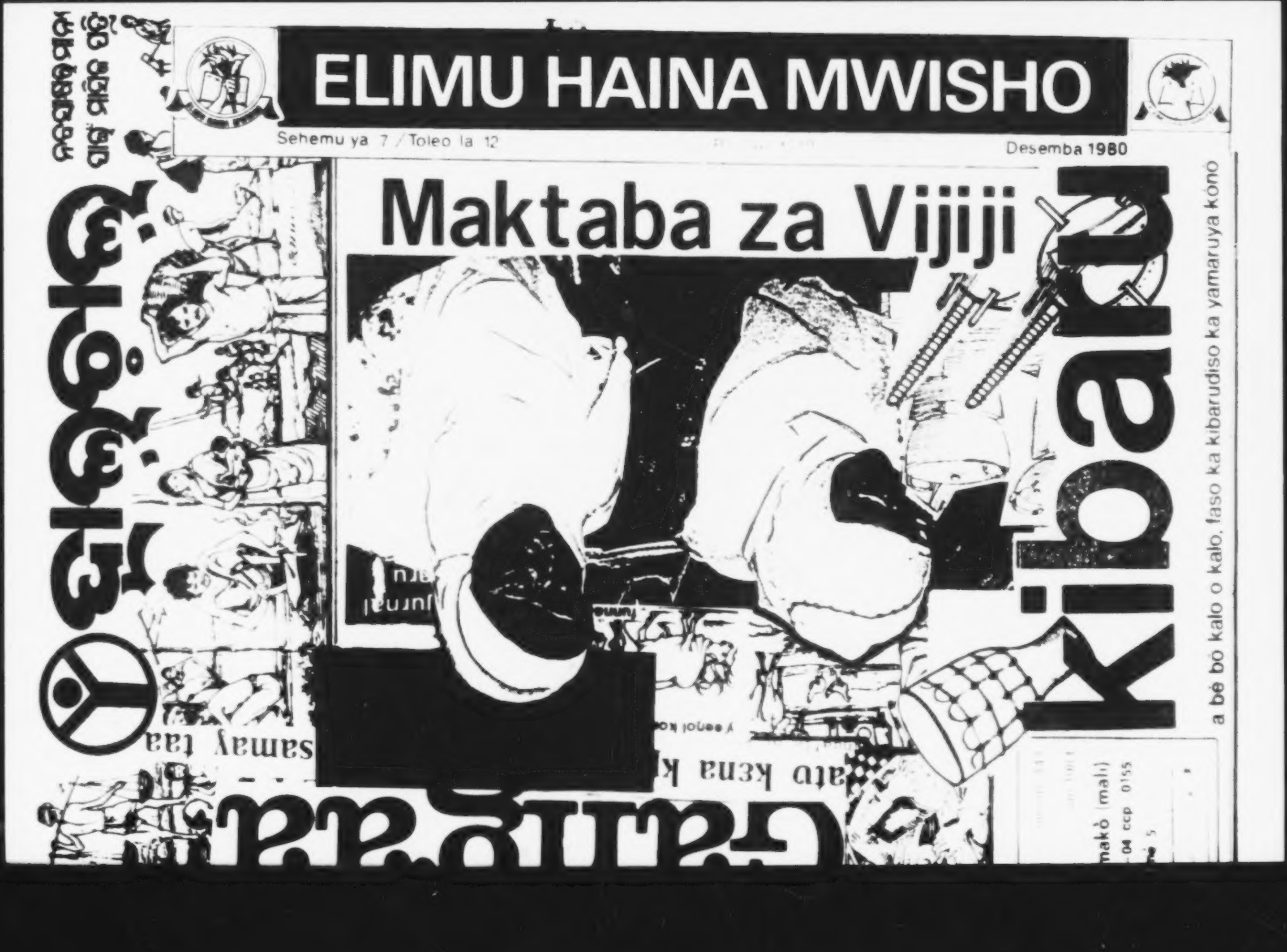
It is interesting to note that, with the exception of some few uses of French and English, the papers under study here are in local languages.

The papers also differ with respect to their regional distribution; there are national, regional, district and village newspapers. Some countries produce their papers at the national level (Burkina Faso, Jamaica, Mali, Senegal) even though a large part of the writing is devoted to regional and local aspects of events and problems. Niger, on the other hand, has set up a genuinely decentralised rural press, ranging from the national paper *Gangaa* through regional papers such as *Jine Kay Yan* to more than a hundred village papers. Tanzania, with its seven regional, or zonal, newspapers, occupies an intermediate position. The monthly *Elimu Haina Mwisho*, which is invariably mentioned in the literature on the rural press on account of its enormous prestige and high circulation, serves in fact the lake zones of the north-west as is in reality one of the seven zonal papers of the country.

In *India* there are about 8,000 small newspapers operative in and for rural areas and covering rural themes. These papers include dailies of tabloid size, weeklies and biweeklies. Farm periodicals have contributed towards the growth of development journalism in India. Today, there are about 250 farm periodicals published in India, of which about 190 are in Hindi and other regional languages, and the remainder in local languages.

Apart from the 8,000 small newspapers operating in and for rural areas, some sporadic efforts have been made in bringing out monthly bulletins and periodicals for the neo-literates and others having limited reading ability.

Elsewhere, it is the wall-newspaper which occupies the place of a community press, either simultaneously with one or several papers, or as an exclusive strategy fulfilling the functions of education and of providing news. The Directorate of Advertising and Visual Publicity of the Government of India brings out a biweekly wall-newspaper, *Hamara Desh* (Our Country),



ELIMU HAINA MWISHO

Sehemu ya 7 / Toleo la 12

Desemba 1980

Maktaba za Vijiji

jurnal

aru

kibaru

a bè bò kalo o kalo, faso ka kibarudiso ka yamaruya kòno

makò (mali)

04 ccp 0155

atʋ kɛna k

samay taa

y eeŋol ko

funna

Gangaa

in Hindi and other regional languages. Many new papers were developed among them *Jago Aur Jagao* (Awake and Make Other Awake), published in Hindi by the Indian Adult Education Association. *Nattu Velicham* (Light of the Village), the monthly wall-newspaper in Malayalam of the Kerala State Resource Centre, in "multi-colour-offset", is very popular in rural areas. In several villages walls are painted black in order to write important news items of interest to the villages.

The wall-newspaper is also a medium to which there is recourse in the *United Kingdom*, together with the periodic newsletter, which is conceived locally and regionally and which is distributed weekly to the public concerned.

Also with regard to the United Kingdom, mention may be made of the allocation made by a number of current papers and magazines of a certain amount *of their space to the writings* - mostly autobiographical but sometimes different, in prose and in verse - *of neo-literates*. This formula is considered to have the dual advantage of providing valuable reading material for other neo-literates and of reinforcing the two principal components of literacy, namely reading and writing. (5)

The newspapers also differ in the degree of official patronage and support in their management and control. Since the newspapers are vehicles of information, many of them are sponsored by the ministry of information in the given country. But, since development concerns, by its very nature, diverse services, many other ministries or departments, such as those engaged in education, rural development, agriculture, health, social affairs - besides private voluntary and religious bodies - are involved in the management and control of the rural press.

The diversity characteristic of India is reflected in the rural press by the many forms of management - in which private and voluntary organisations play a significant role alongside the state.

In some countries there is only a single sponsoring body, while in most others an interdepartmental committee usually manages the paper. The advantages and drawbacks of the various forms of sponsorship will be dealt with in the sections devoted respectively to difficulties and solutions.

The rural press, perhaps because of its main concern to contribute to education and training, perhaps because of the specificity of its public or genesis, possesses almost nowhere a commercial character. All of the papers studied seem to opt for a kind of "amateurism", seeking hardly at all to cover the resources necessary to their survival. This attitude - which is explained and justified, in our opinion, by the harsh conditions of life of the target groups - results in a heavy dependence of the papers on state and other subsidies.

Objectives, Content and Clientele

It is very clear from the case studies that the clientele of the rural press is wider than the group of neo-literates and that the objectives and content are obviously not those of a regular daily newspaper, despite obvious common elements. In all the countries reporting on the rural press, the native language is used (or one of the native languages where many exist in the country). In all these countries except Tanzania, much of the administrative, commercial, judicial, educational, and other work is done not in the native languages but in a foreign language mastered by only a minority. The rural newspaper designed primarily for the neo-literates thus also provides an opportunity for some of this minority to learn the native languages or at least to become familiar with the script which some of these countries have had to devise. The transmission of this script is stated as one of the objectives of the rural press.

An objective mentioned by all the countries which also results in widening the readership beyond the neo-literates is the establishment of a dialogue between the neo-literates and others, mainly the officials in public, semi-public and private organisations engaged in activities immediately affecting the lives of the neo-literates. Dialogues are initiated in several ways. On the one hand, there are reports of the developmental work done and expected to be done by the various departments or organisations as the case may be, so that the people are kept informed about matters vital to them. The readers comment on this work, ask questions, etc., and the officials concerned are expected to respond. On the other hand, a reader may report an event or experience which calls for a response from someone who is not a neo-literate as such. Establishing a dialogue between the urban and rural population is also listed as an objective; such a dialogue further widens the clientele beyond the narrow confines of neo-literates. The Senegalese rural paper [illegible], shown in the illustration on p. 55, is an example of continuous dialogue.

The neo-literates, who form the large bulk of the readership of the rural newspapers, are not a homogeneous group. With respect to their literacy background, they are mainly the output from the literacy programmes themselves, and others who for various reasons were not able to complete their formal schooling. Most of them live in rural communities, which in some cases are quite isolated.

Some of the content and objectives have already been referred to. It is evident both from the stated and implied objectives and from the samples of content described for some of the issues in the case studies that rural newspapers are a very useful strategy to meet the overall objectives of *retention*, *continuation*, and *application* referred to earlier. The content included may be broadly classified as follows:

News	News about local, regional, national and international events. The local news is of a social, political nature. In Tanzania the paper has a definite structure with a particular page being devoted to a particular type of news.
General information	Articles regarding health, nutrition and child care, religion, civics, customs, history, geography, how to write a letter, etc.
Vocational information	Articles, mainly on agriculture, agricultural machines, hydraulics and other aspects related to economic development.
Other	Material for entertainment such as stories and puzzles.

The general and vocational information is sometimes supplied in an activity-oriented form. Tanzania has a special "Do-it-yourself" page, while others have not structured the newspaper in so definite a manner. The articles are designed to promote some kind of activity. The news also includes the available timetables for radio broadcasts of literacy and post-literacy programmes. In some cases, the radio broadcast is printed in the paper. The newspaper also serves as an important addition to village libraries where they exist.

The objectives which have been explicitly stated as well as implied by the selection of content and mode of presentation may be indicated as follows:

Overall goals of post-literacy and continuing education	Specific objectives of rural newspapers
Retention	- Medium of expression for readers
Continuation	- Encouragement of habit of newspaper reading
	- Consolidation of knowledge acquired by readers
	- Promotion of wish to read
	- Enjoyment of reading
Application	- Awareness of national development plans
	- Participation in economic and social development
	- Development of national culture, language and religion
	- Instrument for dialogue
	- Conservation of oral traditions
	- Contribution to the development of a written culture

Considering the objectives and the content, it would appear that the major clientele served by the rural newspaper are the neo-literates who are economically active.

Preparation, Production

This includes the entire process ranging from the soliciting of articles to selection (choice of articles, illustrations, etc.), editing, printing, and publication.

Several techniques are employed for obtaining articles. One popular mechanism which seems to be universal throughout the African continent is the organisation and holding of writers' workshops, which bring together adult educators and other experts from diverse governmental and non-governmental departments and organisations. Voluntary associations interested in the production of reading material for the newly literature are also invited to these workshops. Further details are given later under " Texts, extension literature and other similar reading material", since these workshops contribute to that learning strategy also.

Apart from workshops, editorial committees or editorial offices have also been set up in some countries. The scope of their work ranges from checking that the spelling conforms to official norms, to editing or censoring the content.

In some countries, agents working at the community level collect material which meets their needs and interests, and send it to main publication centres. The wish to institutionalise this practice has led almost everywhere to the setting up of real networks of communicators or correspondents composed generally of teachers or animators in the fields of agriculture, health or literacy who have agreed to work voluntarily for the paper at the local level. "Usually they themselves come from the milieu, of which they have (in consequence) a profound knowledge of the priorities, the culture and the languages. It is in harmony with all of these conditions that they collect articles or translate news relating to development. Through sessions for reflection and discussion, by putting in black and white the news, by sending these items of news to the editor and maybe carrying the papers to the villages, they assure a permanent link between the readers and the papers." (6)

Production

The ideal thing would be for each paper to have its own printing press. But that remains in the realm of utopia, considering that its realisation would be impeded by the low frequency of appearance of the papers, the very limited circulation, and the modest selling price. Apart from some papers which use offset printing equipment, and a certain number of papers (mostly spirit-duplicated), all the others are restricted to subcontracting the printing to national companies or private commercial companies.

The means of printing which are employed are modest. One of the practices, which is spreading like the ripples of a wave, is the use of the *[illegible]* (silk screen method) for the village press. It is in [illegible] that this craft tool has found its most favourable echo and most widespread use. The village papers, which constitute the foundation of the rural press in Niger, are the work of the neo-literates themselves, assisted by the rural animators and local literacy instructors, together with whom they form the editorial committee and produce the paper - from the supply of articles through to the printing of the paper. It is a craft enterprise which is able to assemble all of the raw material on the spot and which requires as external support only stencil and ink. Since all of the work is done by hand, copying on the linograph is a simple and relatively quick technique, but it does not permit the production of more than a few hundred copies. To this limitation must be added other drawbacks: the high cost of paper and stencils and the disadvantages involved in the use of a stencil, e.g. the inability to reproduce photographs, the difficulties involved in engraving illustrations, and the limits on the presentation imposed by the format.

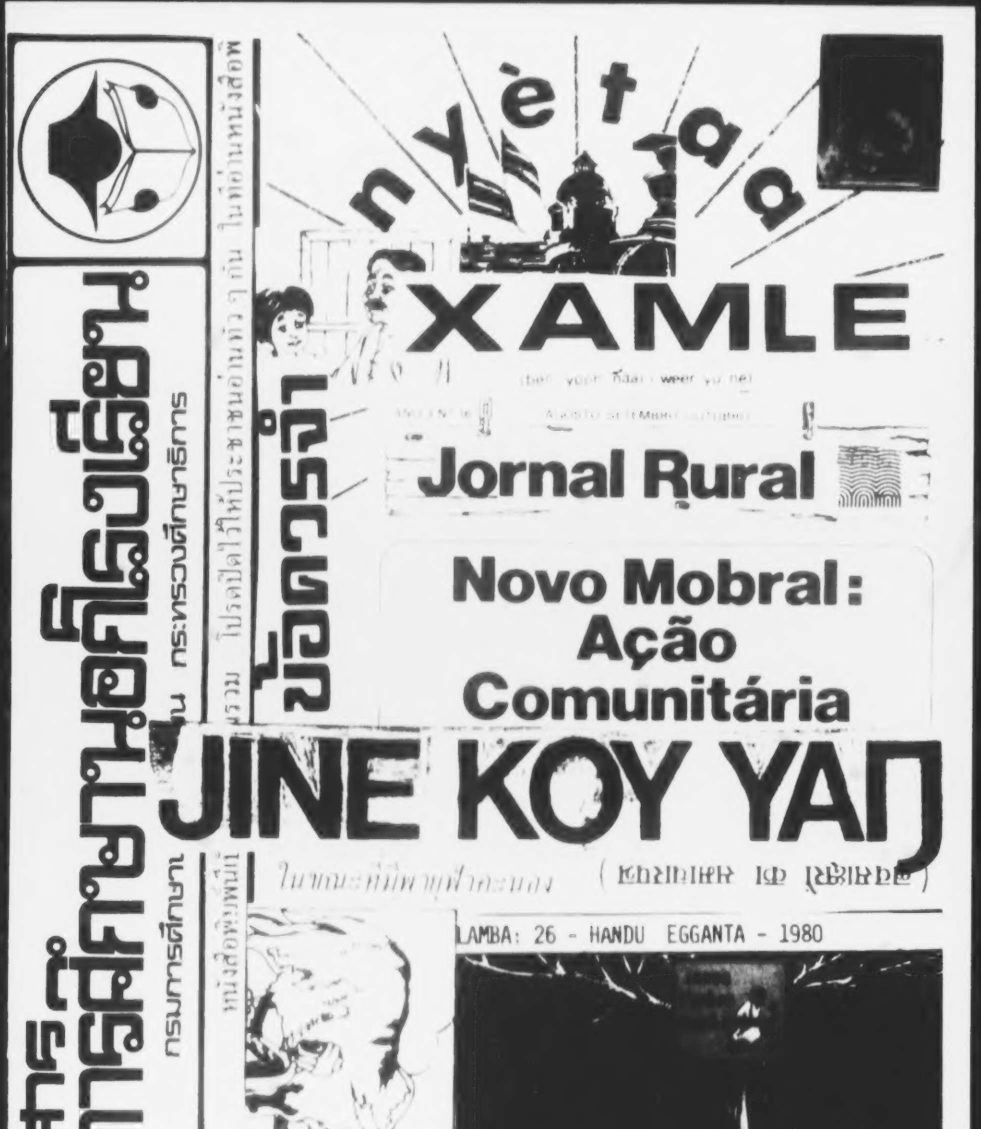
Distribution

The countries use their normal administrative structures for distributing the papers. This means that they use agricultural and health extension workers both to ensure circulation and the organisation of group reading and to gauge the impact and effect of the paper on the target population. Many countries also use all the available literacy structures, including rural libraries and post-literacy classes. In *Jamaica* the national magazine for new readers, *Let's Read*, is distributed by special delivery from JAMAL's headquarters to the regional offices around the island. The regional officers distribute them to the programme managers in parishes and these are taken to the classes and are available at their offices for other interested persons.

And while the paper is being distributed, news is also gathered. Some bodies also try to profit from the local administrative network in distributing their papers.

In some countries papers are sold through shops, but only a very limited audience is reached by this means. Supplying subscribers by post, which might otherwise have constituted the primary mode of dissemination for the rural papers, is, given the weakness of the communications network in these countries, only used by some. Most if not all papers have enormous difficulties in organising their distribution, and it will be seen later in the section on problems that the conveyance of the papers to their readers presents the principal bottleneck.

As will be mentioned later, when dealing with innovative aspects, the village-level production of leaflets or of wall-newspapers reduces to a certain extent this weakness in the distribution.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XAMLE
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กรมการศึกษานอกโรงเรียน กระทรวงศึกษาธิการ
NON-FORMAL EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

Evaluation

The modes of production and distribution are two highly relevant aspects for the evaluation of the rural newspapers. In one case, a group of five villages get together to make 40-50 copies of the paper to be distributed at the market place. At the other extreme are papers printed at a central press in thousands of copies and distributed through a national network. The case studies give little information on *evaluation*, presumably on account of the formal way in which it is generally regarded. The evaluation practices mentioned relate to the administration of questionnaires to ascertain the levels of comprehension, the number of readers, and reactions from readers.

It is very likely that more is actually taking place under evaluation than has been described in the case studies. A group of villagers getting together to produce their own paper implies possible direct interactions between "producers" and "readers", which may lead to a very informal form of self-evaluation. Practices such as these have obviously not been described. Informal practices of this type, which may be quite adequate for this mode of production, are obviously not feasible for papers printed and distributed from a central place. They may need more formal types of monitoring and evaluation.

3.2 Texts, Extension Literature and Other Similar Reading Material

The literature on this strategy is huge and varied. The rural press, which we have just examined, might have been included here, but, on account of its specific role and significance, it has been deliberately treated as a separate learning strategy. The other materials which come under this strategy are not at all uniform. They differ in their form, their presentation, the degree to which they cover a theme (scope, depth, details), in the way in which the content is presented (description, explanation, analysis) and in their modality of appearance and production. According to the importance attached to this or that aspect and according to the combination made of these or those aspects, the following categories are presented in order of decreasing complexity for a better understanding of their use in the case studies:

- book
- periodical

- booklet
- pamphlet
- leaflet
- poster, calendar.

Such a classification is far from being definitive, hence the imprecision of the underlying idea of decreasing complexity. With respect to dissemination, posters, calendars, and leaflets could be complementary to each other and also complementary to other information media (radio, films, television) when used in a coordinated manner during large-scale campaigns intended to promote themes of general interest. This category might thus have the same function as certain brochures or even certain booklets. It is also worth noting that, although the periodicals lack the volume of books, they have the advantage of appearing regularly, without, however, losing the in-depth analysis which can characterise the book.

Objectives, Content and Clientele

The following selection of objectives indicates the significant role expected of textual and other reading material in the context of post-literacy as part of lifelong learning.

Retention	- To reinforce reading habits
	- To maintain and enhance knowledge of functional literacy skills
Continuation	- To promote the use of reading as an instrument of learning and recreation
	- To amplify the linguistic and cultural background
	- To initiate the adult participant in the production of reading material
	- To create an enduring reading culture, in which reading to learn is practised within institutional structures that themselves promote learning habits
	- To give learners an opportunity to express themselves, opening up new horizons
Application	- To diffuse technical information with varying degrees of specificity

- To make learners aware of national goals, policies and ideology so that they can work towards them

- To enable neo-literates to

  · understand certain simple technical operations in carpentry, masonry, etc.

  · widen their theoretical knowledge in agriculture, health, home economics, etc.

  · participate effectively in planning and implementation of development in their areas

- To develop a reflective and critical person with the appropriate attitudes for the transformation of reality in accordance with community needs.

Some Achievements

Reading material for neo-literates is much in evidence in most of the cases studied, for it has long been considered as the supreme weapon against the relapse into illiteracy. The efforts undertaken are unequally spread, and the needs for material are far from being satisfied.

In *Tanzania* the textbooks used for post-literacy are classified by stages (stages five, six and seven). Each stage has eleven books and teachers' guides on political education, mathematics, home economics, handicrafts, history, geography, agriculture, political economy, Swahili and English. Practice and theory are combined. Each book has on average 70 pages with about 12,000 words. Each contains a glossary of the new syllables and words. Publicity is provided by the rural papers, the rural libraries, cinema and radio - these last two media having programmes sensitising people to the need for continuing education and post-literacy.

A prominent place is given in this material to the traditional oral literature, of which the collection, transcription and dissemination in Tanzania has largely been accomplished by systematic research studies. (7)

The production of textual and other reading material is relatively varied in *Mali*. The first extension manuals for neo-literates appeared in 1978 and dealt with water and health, animal husbandry, measles, etc. Since then the production of material for the consolidation of literacy skills has grown through the combined efforts of the DNAFLA (National Directorate of Functional Literacy and Applied Linguistics), the development operations, and, depending on the field, the other technical services, notably those of health, agriculture, co-operation, waterways and forests. The orientation of all of them is towards the advancement of the people in remote rural areas and particularly towards the improvement of their production, income and quality of life in general.

A large number of extension brochures and booklets are produced along the lines of those just mentioned and on subjects which are the most vital for the farmers or which are closest to their concerns: agriculture, soils, fertilisers, gardening, livestock-breeding, health, hygiene, nutrition, pregnancy, co-operation, credit, etc. The oral tradition and the tales of the countryside occupy a favourite place in this repertory.

In *Burkina Faso*, the INA (National Institute of Literacy) and its partners in the field are concerned to provide the newly-literate with abundant reading material in order to satisfy their reading needs as well as their intellectual curiosity, awakened and made acute since the literacy phase. Every literacy programme in a given language includes corresponding post-literacy literature prepared in close co-operation with the relevant technical services.

At present, about fifty titles are available in the following fields: water-hygiene; community work; living surroundings; the problems of the family and children; the country and its development; the family's economy; etc. Here too, the cultural tradition has provided the subject matter of many publications.

In *Nigeria*, the reading material for neo-literates was inaugurated in 1972 with the series *Ben at the Market*. Since then, other books have been written. The most recent series deals with domestic skills, wheat cultivation, between seasons gardening, and mechanics. This new tendency is reflected in the *Onitsha Series* (from the name of the village of the State of Anambra where it is published) composed of follow-up brochures ranging from short stories to do-it-yourself brochures.

In *Senegal*, the post-literacy phase, which incorporates many elements of self-learning and self-evaluation, is perceived from the conception of the didactic material for literacy itself. To this aspect must be added the production of consolidating and reading material concerning agricultural extension (work), official texts, and the oral tradition.

In *Indonesia*, the Basic Education Programme, whose major objective is to abolish the "three blindnesses" (illiteracy, lack of sufficient command of the national 'Bahasa Indonesia' language and lack of knowledge and skills), is implemented by the Department of Community Education (*PENMAS*) not only through self-learning and apprenticeship courses but also through courses designed for learning groups. This 'package' is popularly known as *Kejar Paket A*. In the Indonesian language, *Kejar* has three distinct meanings. First, it means literally "to catch up", or "to improve one's life". Secondly, it is a composite of the words *kelompok belajar*, which mean "learning group". All PENMAS activities at the community level are based upon the abilities, needs, resources, and dynamisms of the local learning groups. Finally, *Kejar* is also a composite of the words *bekerja* and *belajar*, meaning "work and study", showing the integration of daily life activities (work) and learning (study).

Kejar Paket A is a learning package consisting of a series of 100 titles meant for basic learning and providing information on all aspects of life for the educationally deprived (e.g., primary school drop-outs, out-of-school population and illiterates), so as to enable them to acquire the minimum knowledge and skills required to raise their standard of living. These graded materials are to be studied in a definite sequence. The first 20 of the series contain integrated basic lessons aiming at providing instrumental skills; therefore, they are regarded as laying the foundations on which knowledce is built. The subsequent titles constitute follow-up and continuation material, whose object is to impart further functional skills and inculcate the attitudes required for developing a new way of living. *Kejar Paket A* provides material for basic as well as continuing learning. In order to help the learner cope with the application of the content, the programme includes progressive, supplementary material which emphasises the details of what has originally been taught, so that learners can simply apply the skills through the act of reading. In other words, the supplementary material serves as a work manual. *PENMAS* publishes guides on how supplementary material may be produced and encourages its production at the local and village levels. These guides contain in each booklet a technical description of a particular skill to facilitate practical training. A final achievement test may be given on request any time after completion of the course. Those who pass the test receive a *Certificate of Participation in the Packet A Learning Programme*. (8)

It is the well known *"Literatura de cordel"*, so called because the booklets are sold attached to a string, which provides neo-literates in *Brazil* with their reading. The themes covered may place them in the category of extension brochures and booklets dealing notably with agriculture, livestock breeding, and health. These booklets are in general linguistic adaptations of technical material. In addition to their mode of sale, the booklets are also written by poets in verse. The main titles are:

- ("Learn Farming with String Books") *Aprenda a Agricultura em Literatura do Cordel;* and
- ("Cattle-Breeding and How to Give Necessary Aid to the Herds") *Bovino-cultura e como Criar e Dar Assistência Necessária ao Rebanho*

These booklets were published in 1979 in editions of 17,620 and 51,235 respectively. (9)

The supplementary reading material produced in *Venezuela* is of three types:

- for the neo-literate
- for the general community
- for teachers' motivation

These texts produced by the CREA (Regional Adult Education Centre) are graded and range in content from "specific knowledge to more complex forms of social behaviours (family attitudes, group activities, community problems, general information about work, society and so forth)". (10)

Lessons from these Achievements

This reading material is intended for the neo-literate, as are most of the materials associated with the strategies which are the object of the present analysis. In the chapter on the clientele of post-literacy, it was mentioned both that this clientele comes from two main sources, and that each learning strategy aims in its way at a secondary audience. In contrast to the rural press, which is open to a varied clientele, the textual and other reading material addresses a more restricted clientele. Thus the material produced in Burkina Faso and Mali on the *improved stoves* and that produced in Togo on small trade and income generation are intended essentially for women.

Reading material as a definitive learning strategy assumes in reality a number of different functions which are often indicated by the way in which the material is referred to. Some materials carry the self-explanatory label of *supplementary reading material;* sometimes there is talk of *didactic material*, thus putting the accent not on retention but on the complete learning process as a continuous whole. Extension material, by disseminating practical knowledge, aims rather at its application to concrete life situations.

Another distinction imposes itself on a further examination of the examples mentioned above. It relates to the existence of two approaches in the organisation and sequencing of the content of this material:

(1) In some cases the material is graded and structured into courses and levels. This is the concern of all the countries whose programmes have a pronounced academic orientation and which have consequently established appropriate links and equivalences between the post-literacy programmes and the courses given within the formal school system. A part of this material takes the form of school textbooks which, if they are to be mastered and accredited, need such links and equivalences. This is notably the case in *Mali* and *Venezuela*. *Tanzania* has a set of graded texts, but the sequence is independent of the grade levels in the formal school system and depends on such factors as vocabulary level, sentence length, ideational content, and complexity of illustrative material. In *Jamaica* the textual reading material is of two types:

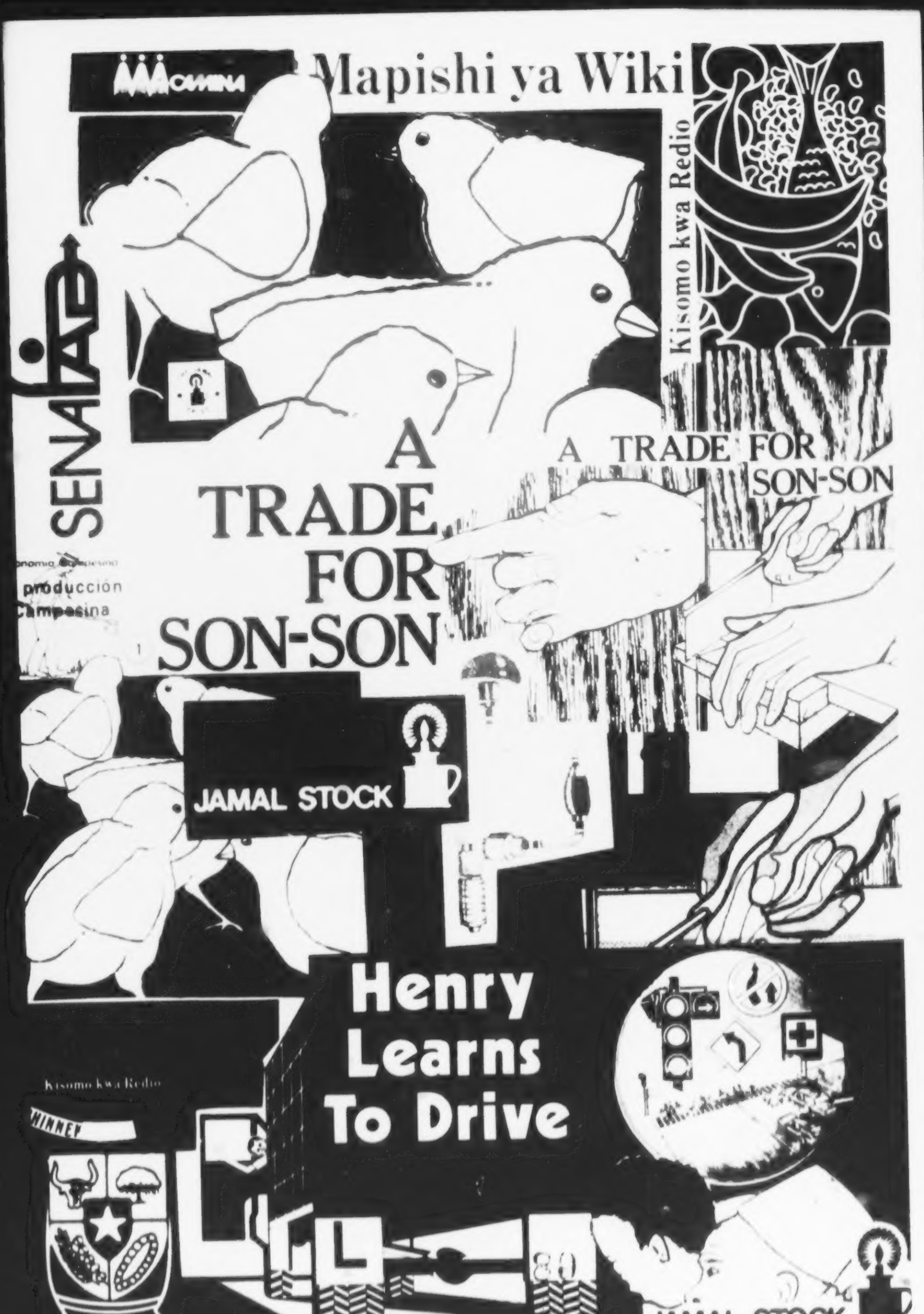
(a) The supplementary reading materials, prepared for all levels of learners, with the exception of level 1; and

(b) The advanced reading material for those who have completed the JAMAL literacy courses at level 4 as well as for persons not formally enrolled in literacy classes.

> The writing of these materials is carefully done with the use of specialised scientifically tested techniques of gradation and vocabulary selection. In Jamaica the vocabulary used is systematically checked against the recommended Supplementary Reading Vocabulary of 3,000 words compiled by Dr Edgar Dale, Professor of Adult Education. (11)
>
> In other cases the sequencing of the material is not determined primarily by the structure of the subject matter treated. The grading takes account of language difficulties and writing ability. This is notably the case with regard to the extension material produced in Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger, Senegal, etc. In these cases the proportion of illustrations to text and the size of the typeface are adjusted to the level of competence of the readers.

With respect to the organisation of the content, a general tendency has also been observed which consists in not shrinking from the complexity of the content. The messages transmitted are profound, critical and sometimes even esoteric. Illustration is furnished by the special rubric of the Malian journal for neo-literates *Nyetaa* (Progress) called *Kuma man di da kelen na (Kalanden jolema ka kuma)*. The following translation of this rubric and its subtitle are self-explanatory." The word is sweet when it does not emanate from one mouth: The Tribune of mature learners".

The usage of complex content is a reflection of attention given to adults whose maturity helps them to cope with such a content and whose needs require that such content be dealt with. It also reflects, however, the propensity which the post-literacy programmes have to aim at adults, perhaps in reaction to the monopoly which children and young people enjoy within the formal system - to the detriment of a part of the post-literacy public for whom the messages transmitted in the formal system might not be relevant. Hence, there is a need to find a point of equilibrium, or to provide material which is in conformity with the capacity of adults to learn and understand on the one hand, and with the needs of the young people and the children who join literacy courses in increasingly large numbers, on the other.


CAMINA
Mapishi ya Wiki
Kisomo kwa Redio
SENA
producción
Campesina
A TRADE FOR SON-SON
A TRADE FOR SON-SON
JAMAL STOCK
Henry Learns To Drive
Kisomo kwa Redio
WINNER
L
JAMAL STOCK

The use of posters and other pictorial and visual messages roughly bridges the gap between the reading skills and the maturity of the learners.

Production

Under this heading are included both the agents and the organisational and institutional arrangements for production, and the technological processes.

In the discussion of the use of textbooks during the African Orientation Seminar, it became clear that there were two approaches. One group of countries, mostly French-speaking, produce and use post-literacy books in a less formal manner. The new literates participate heavily in their production; they write some of the articles, and in some cases they even do the actual technical production by running the linograph duplicators. Such books are not designed for formal courses, and the students using them have greater flexibility and independence.

The other group of countries produce post-literacy materials in a formalised manner. These books are intended for structured courses; in Tanzania and Kenya, for example, the books are produced as an integral part of the post-literacy curriculum, and each book has a teachers' guide. The group considered this an important difference in the cross-national approaches to post-literacy education. Although the contents of the books in this case can be used independently by the learner, they are obviously intended for formal instruction.

One form of production is the collection of the rich heritage constituted by the flourishing oral literature of all countries participating. It is a very extensive source, which successive generations have helped to enrich. The essence of the work consists in adding illustrations and, as the need arises, commenting on and translating the available stock. The genres concerned are very varied. They take the form of stories, songs, riddles, proverbs, legends, poems, maxims, and recitals which accompany birth, marriage, funerals, and other significant events.

The collection might be the work of a researcher or of a team of researchers going in quest of story-tellers in the countryside; it might also emanate, for example, from a workshop of story-tellers set up in the course of an evening. Such a series of workshops organised in Tanzania within the framework of the "Books by People" programme has produced many books. In the very first seminar-workshop five pamphlets containing 28 stories and 59 proverbs were produced. (12)

In *Mali* there has been recourse to the taping and transcription in the original language of the whole of the collection of oral literature of the *Malian National Broadcasting Station*. Entire epics, sketches, riddles, tales, etc. have been transformed into some fifty booklets of which some have already been published.

Another form of the organisation of the production of printed material for neo-literates is the writers' workshop, which is used in most of the English-speaking countries, e.g. Tanzania, Kenya, Zambia, Nigeria, and India. The nature of these workshops varies according to the country. In most of the African countries concerned the main emphasis is put on production. It is a matter of pooling talents, skills, and experience for a limited period and for a predetermined quantity of production. The average duration is two weeks, during which all of the local human resources, editorial as well as technical, are mobilised: content experts, language experts, technical services, political and administrative officials, editors, printers, illustrators, etc.

Some voluntary associations interested in the production of reading material for neo-literates are also invited. The most favoured practice is the Tanzanian type of workshop where the main objective is the immediate production of brochures by an appropriate team. Another practice (in use in Zambia, for example) comprises three distinct phases: a planning meeting on the form and content of the materials; an active writing phase at the field level; and a final concluding session to prepare the material for printing. Another variant consists in having a manuscript revised by a panel of experts.

In *India*, the workshops have a twofold objective:

(1) to train potential writers from among instructors, extension workers, development agents or others who join on their own;

(2) to prepare manuscripts reflecting the needs and requests of the neo-literates.

A common practice in the French-speaking countries in

Africa consists in either involving neo-literates in various workshop tasks or in stimulating them to write articles for the rural press, to prepare reading material or even to write textbooks. The workshops can take the form of nonformal sessions in which professionals and neo-literates are assembled side by side. Examples of such workshops are those in *Mali*. They have made possible the revision of brochures which had already been worked out and which dealt not only with the extension themes but also with geography, history, biology, the natural sciences, grammar, and various scientific terminologies. It is in the *writing committees* of *Burkina Faso* that neo-literates meet to edit texts for those of their countrymen who are less well furnished with reading matter. It is also in the *[illegible] cells* and the *[illegible] cells* set up in *Senegal* (within the framework of creating a literate environment) that official documents and texts on health, reading, and arithmetic are produced.

Most of the countries stimulate and encourage individual and collective creativity. Literary competitions with prizes are organised on a regular basis to discover and reward talent. International Literacy Day, the 8th of September, is the most frequently used occasion, in which the international community also joins, particularly, through Unesco.

In *India* the government has implemented a number of projects to promote the publication of reading material for new readers: the creation of writers' guilds and co-operatives and of national book trusts; the setting up of a network of state resource centres; the organising of regular national competitions for authors and publishers; the bulk purchase of books for libraries and literacy programmes; fixing of prices of booklets; the allotment of newsprint paper and subsidies to cover printing costs. So far, 24 competitions have been conducted and 897 books in various languages have been given awards.

In *Jamaica*, in order to meet this need, which has expressed as a major concern in 1975, a competition in "Popular Literature" was sponsored by UNESCO/UNDP and JAMAL. The aim was to provide reading matter that was current, relevant, and entertaining - that would stimulate a wider section of the population to enjoy reading. This project was called [illegible] - Follow-up Literature for Individual Learners. It was open to Jamaican individuals or groups to submit entries according to the specifications laid down. The categories selected were:

- Unsung Heroes - Narratives about the little known people who have made a useful contribution to the development of Jamaican life at town, country or village level.
- Stories with an element of excitement and adventure or romance. The short story, essay or comic-strip format was used.

The entries were many and varied. In addition to the prize-winning stories which were later published in book form, others were carried in *Let's Read*, and short skits were presented on radio. This made a tremendous impact on the programme as writers were also identified who could supplement the JAMAL writers, when needed. Some of the books provide information on culture, sports, civic duties and other subjects of general interest, while others are novels or stories. (13)

Distribution

In some countries the books are distributed free of charge, and in others they are sold at production cost.

Those countries that sell their materials seem to do so for two major reasons: (i) income from the sales helps in subsidising the production costs; and (ii) they believe that people will only value the items they pay for, however small the fee may be. The books are distributed to post-literacy groups and individual learners. In some countries, the books are kept in the village libraries for borrowing by readers.

Distribution is not only a question of *how* to distribute, but often also of *what* to distribute. Despite great encouragement and in spite of the existence of talent - even of virtuosity - the publication of texts and books in local languages is well below the enormous potential market represented by the flood of neo-literates who each year cross the threshold of literacy. The national publishers do not find the production of reading material in local languages profitable. Some countries seem more fortunate than others, and there is co-operation in this respect between those sharing the same languages. Niger, for example, provides its neo-literates with books produced in Nigeria, Burkina Faso and Mali.

3.3 Some Problems and Difficulties

Barriers and resistance to implementing and developing the rural press and the production of written material exist. Some are linked to training and manifest themselves either in the low performance level of the neo-literates or else in the weakness of the animators. Another set of problems concerns the financing of the enterprise, the various costs and charges necessitated, and the printing equipment. The organisation and administration, for their part, present certain specific problems. For the majority of countries, however, the most difficult problems seem to be connected with distribution. Finally, another category of difficulties concerns the environment in which the enterprise takes shape, e.g. the multiplicity of languages, lack of political will and the declared apathy of certain intellectuals.

(a) Problems Linked to Training

The use of printed media presupposes two things: the existence of potential readers (capable of reading and understanding) and of possible creators (capable of designing, producing and animating).

One might, however, attribute the narrowness of the clientele not to the already high rate of illiteracy in the Third World, but to the insufficient training of the animators, of whom some show an inability to cope effectively with the post-literacy material. This situation is reflected naturally in the learning process and explains in part the weak performances of neo-literates in reading, writing and arithmetic. This inadequacy makes itself felt even more in the rural press where, in addition to the rudiments of literacy, a certain journalistic competence is required. The majority of the rural papers are the work of the self-taught, who have been trained *in situ*. Africa, for example, is not lacking in the infrastructure of research and training in journalism, but the contents and the methods of the rural press are, despite well known innovations introduced here and there, far from satisfying needs at the local level. Problems connected with the financial situation and stability of the rural press discourage people from making their careers in it and do not incite professionals to attempt to understand the rural press and to conform with the educative profile prevalent in most of the available training institutions, i.e. to [illegible] in rural journalism.

However, in view of what has been achieved, one might pose the question, "whether it is not preferable to work with writers who are self-taught (at least in the subject matter), recruited from among the agricultural extension workers, social workers, animateurs and others engaged in development at the level of the community, and who experiment first on paper and then on simple machines - sometimes even made with their own hands (linographs, for example, in Niger) - rather than with the university-educated elite who are divorced from the milieu, produce learned tracts and, with the help of technicians, make use of sophisticated offset and colour printing machines to turn out tabloid papers whose content will not interest a single peasant, even if he understands it. Between rudimentary equipment and the sophisticated electronic machine, between the local chronicler and the intellectual editor, there is room for all sorts of appropriate intermediate solutions, which are in fact applied here and there." (14)

(b) *Problems Linked with Financing and Equipment*

Not one of the rural newspapers examined is financially independent. Without exception, all are dependent on subsidies from various sources. The conditions under which they function, the objectives which they set themselves, and the impoverished nature of their clientele render their financial viability problematic if not altogether impossible. None of these rural newspapers are in a position to cover all of their capital and recurrent expenses. The urban press achieves these ends through sales and publicity. And so the formulas which might lead to the financial viability of rural newspapers are yet to be invented, since the known procedures seem to have little relevance. In addition to the notorious lack of material and financial means which are necessary for it to flourish, advertising such as it is generally conceived does not manage to find its way in societies which are organised differently and whose consumption patterns are not easily manipulated. As for growth in circulation, this is restricted by the multiplicity of languages, by the obstacles posed by the distribution in regions which are difficult of access, by the pressing necessity there is each time of meeting the expectations and limited skills of a well-defined local reading public which is often both a restricted and a demanding clientele. (15). Only the Tanzanian rural press is relatively free of printing problems. Elsewhere, the problem of the lack of means of printing is compounded by the necessity of using special characters which can only be acquired through special orders because the technological processes have not been mastered by the countries concerned. Often the constitution of a *written language* is retarded by the antagonism of different spelling practices. Such a diversity of practices adds to confusion among the neo-literates.

The printing press certainly constitutes the basic equipment for the manufacture of a rural paper, but there is also the question of the requisite raw materials and other necessities. Sometimes production is blocked or delayed because of shortages of newsprint paper (generally imported), plates, films, and chemical products. This is illustrated by the Jamaican new-reader magazine *Let's Read*, which started out as a monthly paper; however, due to shortage of suitable raw material and shortage of staff in the editorial and printing sections, it had to be reduced to a quarterly. The quantity had also to be drastically reduced from 60,000 copies to 5,000. Even linography or silk-screen printing does not entirely solve the problems of ink and paper, for these are rarely produced locally. Hence there is everywhere a demand to exhibit greater imagination to overcome such shortages through the increased use of handy, local, and cheap materials.

(c) *Problems Linked with Organization and Administration*

Dependence on a development agency or a ministry has the advantage of assuring the survival, if not the growth, of the paper, but the delays which such a dependence can cause are characteristic of the majority of the papers mentioned. A typical and concrete example is given by the paper *Kibaru* of Mali, whose irregular appearance is largely due to the priority of official publications for the use of the state printing press. The irregular appearance of *Linga* in the Central African Republic and of *Gangaa* in Niger are also due in part to the administrative difficulties occasioned by the dependence of these papers on other agencies.

Another kind of administrative barrier is found in the functioning of certain committees set up in the course of the search for an effective decision-making mechanism. The establishment of sub-committees composed of government representatives can lead to an operational unwieldiness, even to paralysis. The search for operational efficiency can alienate the paper from its "political base", which is often essential for the survival of the rural press. The Togo papers *Game Su* and *[illegible]* have often seen their appearance schedules upset because politically important personnel were unable to devote adequate time to them. The solutions currently envisaged to meet this deficiency are orientated towards the adoption of a consultative approach which combines flexibility with the search for a sufficiently broad representation to make the paper a genuine instrument for education, culture, and recreation, while avoiding the slowness and the bottlenecks that can be caused by changes or by absenteeism.

(d) *Problems Linked to Distribution*

Distribution is one of the main problems the rural press is confronted with. The system of distribution seems to be the same for most of the countries concerned (Mali, Niger, Tanzania, etc.). In order to reach the village consumers, the papers have to go through several administrative levels (national, regional, district) and make use of the sparse means of transport. The low population density, the distances to be covered, the inadequacy or even non-existence of an infrastructure (roads, electricity, services) connecting the villages with the centres where the papers are manufactured, the scant means of transport and communication, and the high postal charges explain, but do not justify, the complexity and laxity of distribution and sales systems. Monthly publication imposes a mode of editing on the papers which takes something of the savour from the events reported. The delays caused by the form of transport set up for the distribution grow worse during the rainy season and there is then recourse to the bicycle (*Tanzania*), the dugout canoe, the donkey or shanks's pony (*Ethiopia*) to carry the paper to its readers at the grass root level. The village press and the wall-newspaper are often born from the desire to circumvent this difficulty. Being locally available, they resolve the distribution problem and, by changing the medium/material support, they can economise to some extent with respect to the technological and material processes.

(e) *Problems Linked to the Environment*

(1) *Linguistic*. Everywhere it has been discovered that it is impossible to achieve a dialogue with the rural populations in the international languages (English, French, Portuguese, and Spanish) understood by the urban elite and used as official working languages in the administration of affairs. Thus almost all of the rural papers prefer to use current local languages. It is clear that the choice of the language of publication is dependent on the cultural policy in each country. It remains nonetheless true that the richness and variety of the linguistic palette in most countries feeds an often passionate debate on

the choice of languages to be used. Since choice implies the imposition of a norm, it always creates frustration among those who speak the dialects which have been rejected. To this delicate problem is added the more technical one of the necessity of writing in languages whose scientific descriptions are far from being complete. Often there is not even agreement on the alphabet and orthographic rules. And it is precisely the rural press which is called upon to help with the solution of the problems posed by the harmonisation of texts in local languages, i.e. to play the role of a catalyst by generating normative forms.

(2) *Political*. All of the rural papers depend upon subsidies accorded by the governments and development agencies. The size of the subsidy is an evident sign of the degree of commitment. Paradoxically, the growth of some papers is retarded by the apathy of some intellectuals: in Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger, and Senegal, the sometimes veiled, sometimes open hostility of the administrative and technical management cadres hampers the development of the rural papers, which are thus marginalised and deprived of all prestige.

3.4 Solutions that have been tried

The discussion which took place in the course of the orientation seminars corroborates the findings from the case studies, i.e. that the rural press owes its success, at least in part, to the conjunction or interaction of certain factors, of which the main ones may be summarised as follows:

(a) *The collective nature of the editing and the openness to all of the interests and disciplines present* in the rural world (literacy, agriculture, co-operation, health, livestock breeding, waterways and forests, etc.). A paper is rarely the work of a single individual or even of one agency or ministry. It is the fruit of a collective effort in which several sectors of national activity collaborate - which no doubt plays a large part in its success. This co-operation between the various teams and agencies enables the pooling of resources and the avoidance of duplication. The difficulty born out of the multiplicity of the bodies involved in the development of post-literacy becomes a challenge to be overcome. The tolerance shown towards voluntary groups and bodies means that all opinions can find expression and that an almost inexhaustible domain of convergent interests can be pooled together.

(b) *The participation of the readers in the definition of the content.* This is obtained in a number of ways:

(1) by setting up a network of communicators chosen from the locality who mediate the different opinions of the readers;

(2) by encouraging the neo-literates to write their own articles, either individually or in special production workshops;

(3) by the diversification of headings and the specialisation of some of them.

The search for such participation is an expression of a manifest will everywhere displayed to take account of the needs expressed and previously identified by the participants.

(c) *The establishment of a feedback and a permanent dialogue within the field most affecting the daily problems of the readers*, e.g. agriculture, health, family economy, education. A section several columns long is often devoted to readers' letters. This is a forum where readers can express themselves, ask questions and find answers. The diversity and the volume of the letters illustrate the interest readers take in their paper. This platform enables the attachment of the neo-literates to their papers to be judged, and also gives an idea of the relevance of the content for the clientele.

(d) *The contribution of the rural press towards the development of a norm, a supra-dialect variant.* In spite of this fact, the paper accords great latitude to each contributor to give his article the local colour which is often its strength, for it is an expression of the author's immersion in the roots of his local culture.

(e) *The openness of the rural press to a secondary public over and above the primary clientele of neo-literates.* Most of the papers pay great attention to town-dwellers and even to cadres who have recently been made "literate" in the national languages and to young pupils who have left formal school. The collective reading sessions organised by some subscribers enable even illiterates to benefit from the substance of the paper.

(f) *"The new reader's sense of participation and identification with the rural newspaper, which arises from the non-commercial nature of the newspaper.* It is, as it were, exchanged for a contribution which is modest but necessary for a minimal attachment to be created and for the material costs to be covered. Furthermore, various formulas have emerged to help particularly needy farmers: collective reading and shared subscription, for example. Other things being equal, such schemes obviously preclude equating the number of copies with the number of readers. It can simply be presumed that, since there are no unsold copies, the number of readers corresponds at the very least to the number of copies sold (understood in the sense of distributed so as to include any free copies). One estimate has been put forward that the number of readers is ten times that of the buyers." (16)

(g) *The fact that the rural press does not act alone.* As we have already emphasised, there is an interaction among the different learning strategies. Thus the rural press reinforces and is reinforced by other post-literacy media employed: rural libraries, educational radio, correspondence courses, traditional media, etc. In *Mali* the rural animation radio programme supports the *Kibaru* by devoting a weekly half-hour broadcast to: reading letters and answers for which there was no room in the paper; conveying information about it; and, when time permits, reading one or other of its articles. In addition, the daily radio education broadcasts are designed in conjunction with the rural paper.
In *Tanzania*, the educational radio programme broadcasts articles from the rural press and/or prepares programmes about various other articles; the rural libraries keep and lend out the papers to their users, and the rural newspapers are distributed in the Folk Development Colleges to be read by course participants.

(h) *The increasingly widespread use of silk-screen printing at the village level* to meet the lack of printing equipment and the absence of electricity. This practice helps de-mystify the written word in the eyes of the neo-literates and goes a long way to solving the problems connected with the distribution and the supply of raw materials.

(i) *The attempts being made by some countries to develop an economically viable rural press.*

(1) The creation (in *Zambia*, for example) of a modular offset printing facility servicing several satellite papers in a single region, with each paper having access to its own editorial, photo-journalistic and layout services;

(2) Experimentation, as in *Kenya* and *Indonesia*, with a mobile printing micro-unit;

(3) The pooling of resources and the sharing of printing units between the rural press and other learning strategies *(Tanzania, Togo)*.

(j) *Recourse, as in Mozambique, India and Thailand, to the blackboard newspaper* to diffuse information, ease retention, and solve distribution and supply problems. The central blackboard gets its name from its location in the village square where a wall painted black is used to inform the neo-literates about international, national and local events.

(k) *Use of the circulation networks of the official national information newspapers* to overcome certain of the distribution difficulties of the rural press. In some cases, an entire page of such a paper is devoted to articles written by neo-literates, and is often accompanied by the photograph of the author *(Ethiopia)*. In *Jamaica*, the *Daily Gleaner*, which is the most widely distributed paper in the country, has donated a page twice monthly to *JAMAL*. The content of this *New Reader's Page* is the selected news which is simplified and written in large type for easy reading by neo-literates. In *Togo*, a daily summary of news in the literacy languages is inserted in the Official National Newspaper. In *Mali*, a page of summaries in the languages used for literacy, is inserted in the weekly edition of the national paper *L'Essor*.

(l) *The effort being made by several countries to find solutions for training deficiencies* by adopting flexible and appropriate procedures, the most common being the organisation of local/national short-term intensive seminars for the initial or subsequent training of writers and communicators.

BOŊ SE

ALBISHIRINKU

KABAARU

SAABON RA'AYII

Amfaanin Kaya

YUNI 1983

TAMBA HANDO 4 HIRO
Amfaanin Kaya
RUBU [illegible] 4 NAGARYA

M'BIIDA LAABAARI TIRA

soto mu hov caw ni boŋ se

(m) *The tendency to use already existing material for multiple purposes.* In order to assist individuals and communities in various ways, according to their interests, needs and skills, there is a tendency to attribute a multi-purpose function to the textual reading material produced. In *Brazil*, the techniques adopted by and the findings of the Technology of Scarcity Programme were disseminated through pamphlets in the *Cada Cabeça é um Mundo* ("To Each Head a World of its Own...") collection, which constituted the reference work for the programme.
These pamphlets were also fully used in other MOBRAL programmes, serving students who had already learned to read and write, as for example, in the Integrated Education Programme and the Self-Teaching Programme. They were, in addition, used as a teaching aid in formal education, and about 3,000 sets of the *Cada Cabeça é um Mundo* ... series have even been distributed to elementary and secondary schools. (17)

(n) *Recognition on the part of key personnel of such dangers as:*

- the tendency of learners to accept existing materials as blue-prints for literacy and post-literacy, leading them perhaps to reject other material which may be relevant.

Likewise, *their appreciation of the necessity to*

- produce local materials and equipment which do not need sophisticated maintenance; and to
- interest all extension workers in literacy and post-literacy activities, so that they may be used for news-gathering and for the distribution of printed materials.

4. LEARNING STRATEGIES USING AUDIO-VISUAL MEDIA - RADIO, TELEVISION, VIDEO AND CORRESPONDENCE COURSES

It is generally accepted that post-literacy education should not be restricted to strengthening reading, writing and numeracy skills but should include a range of processes having wider socio-cultural dimensions. This demands, in turn, a cultural environment or atmosphere where the presence of the written word is linked to and multiplied through other communication media fundamental to post-literacy. The abundant experiences and popular type of media in post-literacy provision constitute a valuable source from which to draw examples. The conceptual frame and some illustrations are taken from the excellent paper prepared by Dr José Rivero of OREALC (the Unesco Regional Office for Education for Latin America and the Caribbean) for the regional orientation seminar held in 1984 in Caracas as part of the UIE's research and research-based training programme. (16)

For educational purposes, the communication media can be used as channels for transmitting/transferring "knowledge" to the target population. They can also be conceived of as a means of establishing a dialogue aimed at developing the population's capacity for self-expression as well as its ability to interpret and assimilate the available content. These two dimensions are not mutually exclusive. But the option for one or other of them, or for combining them, depends on the scope given to post-literacy and adult education.

The following four major characteristics concerning the use of the media in adult education described by Mario Kaplun (to whom J. Rivero referred), provide grounds for the employment of a typology established according to the audience served, the type and size of the media involved and the organisation of the listening audience.

(1) A tendency to undertake instruction on a massive scale;

(2) A tendency to make use of informal education or to provide facilities for mass audiences nationwide through the communications media;

(3) A tendency to promote education on a group basis through large and small media alike;

(4) A tendency to employ participatory techniques through the media. (19)

Mass instructional efforts and informal education through large communications media (radio, TV) as well as small media (audio-visual devices, films, cassettes, etc.) are here treated separately. Folk media, group and participatory techniques are examined in points 6.1 to 6.3 in the present chapter.

4.1 Radio, Television and New Media

Radio and television possess a much greater dissemination potential than those media which require users to be in very close physical proximity to the materials in which the messages are embedded. Radio is one of the main means of the transmission of speech. The human voice gives argumentation a certain liveliness, creates the illusion of the presence of the speaker, and lends conviction to the argument. Of all these forms of communication, television is the most penetrating and direct. It is not as incomplete as radio or photography, and not as distant as the book or the static image. Television brings together sight and hearing across the whole spectrum of colours and sounds and is able to deal with events as they occur.

Despite their enormous effectiveness in spreading information, these media suffer from one fundamental deficiency: the recipients of the information cannot select the information they desire. They can at best withdraw from the communication process by turning off their receivers; otherwise they must resign themselves to a flow over which they have no control. They can neither enquire at will for the information they need, nor can they leaf through things as they can with magazines or books, or even glance through the titles as is possible with a shelf of books. They must very simply accept the content and the pace of transmission.

Our aim is not to present a discourse on the virtues and the limitations of the new media, but to try to clarify the use made of their positive characteristics for the purposes of post-literacy within the framework of specially conceived educational programmes.

Radio interacts with the other post-literacy strategies in several ways. It can support the printed word and television, make use of written and graphic support material, be integrated with study and action groups, and be combined with all the other strategies which aim at the retention, continuation, and application of the literacy skills acquired. In this respect two strategies widely practised in the Latin American region are worth mentioning: the first is radiophonic schools, and the second the multi-media approach. One of the pioneers in both fields was *ACPO* (the *Acción Cultural Popular*) in *Colombia*. This Programme of Popular Cultural Action was a private, non-profit making agency which offered educational services especially to the rural Colombian "campesino" between 1947 and 1986.

Objectives, Content and Methods

The primary advantage of radio and TV is the possibility of using a methodology which has greater appeal, thereby reaching a much larger and more widely dispersed clientele. At the same time, it can provide valuable support for other learning strategies, as noted above.

In *Brazil* the MOBRAL literacy movement used television, radio, films and other modern technologies for its lifelong education programme and other post-literacy follow-up strategies until 1986. Among these programmes mention should be made of the *Community Health Education Programme (PES)*, which was broadcast by 300 radio stations in twenty-five States and three Territories, and the *Appropriate Technologies Programme*, which demonstrated by exhibitions, radio and above all by television the way in which various techniques were devised and applied in order to provide practical, readily available solutions to the daily problems facing the most disadvantaged sections of the population.

In *Colombia*, the population group reached by ACPO through its various programmes was composed of rural dwellers over 14 years old and of marginal urban groups in need of Integral Fundamental Education for their integration into urban life.

In *Cuba* a vast programme of post-literacy follow-up, standardisation of attainment levels and other links has been initiated to enable the newly-literate emerging from the mass literacy campaigns to become integrated into the country's formal education system. Radio and television have been given the vital task of ensuring the continuing education of workers and peasants and are also being used to raise the pedagogical and methodological levels of thousands of non-professional teachers.

In *Jamaica* the reasons for the use of radio and television are four-fold:

- the need to match mass demand to limited teacher resources;
- the need to support - through centrally-arranged lessons - volunteer, part-time teachers of adult groups, who themselves have not had the time to undergo training or to prepare their own material in any depth;
- the novelty of the media, which helps to stimulate stronger student motivation and therefore to maintain interest; and
- the effectiveness of using these national media to stimulate popular awareness of the nature and scope of educational problems and of the resources available to help solve them.

In *Egypt* radio, TV and other modern communications media contribute to literacy and post-literacy by presenting a number of programmes for illiterates, neo-literates and others. Besides programmes to support formal education and literacy work, radio broadcasts include a large number and variety of activities aimed at neo-literates and designed to inform them about simple facts in different fields. The following are outlines of a few programmes:

- "One Minute Please": A daily one-minute programme giving titbits of general knowledge.
- "The Philosopher Said": A daily five-minute programme which uses dialogue to present the concepts of virtue and beauty, reinforced by Arabic and Islamic traditions. This programme has been broadcast for almost fifteen years now.
- "Visiting Someone's Library": A weekly one-hour programme which reviews a book or books in someone's library and discusses the guest's reading interests, habits, the number of books in his/her library, how the library was formed, etc. This programme arouses the listener's curiosity and encourages reading.
- "Reading for You": This programme reviews new books in different fields.

- "Our Beautiful Language": A daily 10-minute programme on Arabic literature, which uses a simplified method, for example poetry and prose. This programme has been on the air for almost eight years.

Educational programmes account for 5.17% of total transmitting hours on both channels of the Egyptian television. Television offers the following literacy programmes, in addition to complementary programmes for formal education, namely:

- Literacy programmes which started on an experimental basis in 1963 in cooperation with ASFEC (Arab States Fundamental Education Centre) and provided supervision as well as the appropriate education materials. This programme was amended in 1968 and several ministries, local administration bodies and mass organizations were involved.

- The post-literacy programmes include, among others:

  "Simplified Science: a series of seventy 15-minute treatments of simplified subjects broadcast weekly from 1983 to 1984.

  "Teach Yourself" (teaching different skills): This weekly 15-minute programme teaches skills such as foundry work, electricity, carpentry, painting, etc.

  "Economics for Everyone": Thirty-nine instalments of five minutes each have been offered since 1981 three times a week.

In *Kuwait* a radio series called "Knowledge is Light" is produced by the Permanent Committee for Information on Literacy in co-operation with the Ministry of Information's Radio Department. This programme, which is supported by other radio programmes, aims at informing adults of the importance of adult education. Likewise, a *TV Programme on Basic Skills* has been launched within the framework of post-literacy and adult education. Sixteen promotional series in the form of short sketches were prepared by the Permanent Committee in co-operation with a private enterprise called Al Nawras Company for Artistic Productions.

In *Venezuela*, the only formal educational programme conducted through the mass media is the *Instituto Radiofónico Fe y Alegría* (Radiophonic Institute Faith and Joy), which is promoted by the church. It provides primary and basic education as well as literacy programmes and the certificates for the former are officially recognised by the Ministry of Education. It also makes nonformal education programmes available by radio.

The educational method incorporates some teacher contact: there are daily radio classes in accordance with the printed schemes, and weekly group meetings with a teacher-facilitator, who helps the participants on a voluntary basis.

The programme aims to lead the adult population to community participation and organisation through their immediate interest in obtaining a Primary and Basic Cycle Certificate and increasing their status and income. The three-fold objective is summarised in the acronym, *ECO* (=Education, Communication and Organisation).

The teaching material is produced in accordance with the methodology of *educación popular* ("grass-roots education" or "community-based education"). It therefore starts with a critical examination of the culture, highlighting the real problems, needs and interests of people. After this analysis, the material is - as it were - 'returned to the people' for them to improve and transform the reality it expresses. Thus, the material is not just produced *for* people, but *from* and *with* people, enabling them to rewrite their own history.

The inductive method of *Action-Reflection-Action* is used, so that people can learn from their experience and systematise what they have discovered in preparing action. (20)

The clientele consists of people who are provided with definite courses to attain different levels of literacy ending up at a level equivalent to the completion of the primary cycle.

In *Tanzania* the major impetus for developing radio programmes was the need of the newly independent country to provide middle-level state cadres. Radio has also made a major contribution there to the training of the large numbers of primary school teachers, many of whom also serve as literacy teachers. In *Mali* the radio programmes serve the needs not only of the neo-literate farmers, herdsmen, etc., but of extension workers and animators as well. In the *United Kingdom* the clientele consists mainly of those who have acquired only a marginal level of skills on leaving the formal system. These are generally people who come from socially disadvantaged groups, ethnic minorities, the unemployed, etc.

The clientele for education through the media of radio and television may therefore be the whole community, or special groups within the community, or groups of people who are expected to serve the community in various ways. The following sample of objectives reflects this varied composition of the clientele.

Objectives limited to literacy skills and training

- To arouse interest in literacy and post-literacy programmes;
- to stimulate and promote effective participation in the national literacy campaign;
- to inform about the structure, function, and working of the literacy centres;
- to stimulate functional literates to come forward and join national and local post-literacy programmes;
- to assist neo-literates in consolidating and developing the knowledge they have acquired;
- to reinforce the creation of a literacy environment;
- to enhance the ability of adults in areas such as rapid reading, methods of study, and the use of leisure time;
- to give adults the knowledge they need to obtain a primary or basic cycle diploma;
- to contribute to the pedagogical and methodological training of teachers, particularly those with insufficient training.

Objectives relating to application of literacy skills

- To educate neo-literates for fuller participation in development efforts;

- to support agricultural education;
- to create a dialogue among neo-literates, literacy instructors, extension workers, technicians, etc.;
- to integrate people into their communities;
- to improve the quality of life in the community;
- to initiate and sustain group action within communities in fields of general concern such as health, housing, and sports;
- to develop new attitudes in health and sanitation;
- to raise the general cultural level of workers, farmers, and housewives.

All of the studies refer to the formation of listening groups, and in some countries (e.g. *Colombia*, *Tanzania*) the design of the programme calls for concerted group action as a follow-up to be supported by other strategies as well. In *Mali* radio is used to transmit messages between different listening groups and thus attempts to establish dialogue between them. With respect to the wider clientele, sensitising the general population - particularly the urban sector - to the national languages being used for the literacy and post-literacy programmes constitutes a significant objective in those countries which are striving to develop their local languages and dialects. The training of animators and other personnel for these programmes is mentioned by many countries as one of the programme objectives. The provision of information and materials for use in literacy programmes, book production, etc. is a related objective.

In the *United Kingdom* the major contribution of radio and TV in this context has been to persuade the functionally illiterate clientele to make use of national and local programmes to overcome their deficiencies. The radio and TV programmes have often been coupled with low-cost printed material, with the use of the telephone to establish contacts, and with publicity and support through local and national newspapers.

In *Jamaica* the present media programmes are prepared and broadcast under two distinct categories - "instructional" and "motivational". The two series known as *Teaching Now* and *TOTAL (Training of Teachers of Adult Learners)* are intended to assist teachers in problematic areas of their work. The series *Into the Light* and *Lamplight* concentrate on motivation.

The content related to these objectives is similar to that of textual and other reading material and newspapers. Sometimes, there is a clear and deliberate attempt to establish a direct relationship between these two: and it often happens that the broadcasts are based entirely on a series of booklets or brochures to which the programmes refer, and of which some knowledge is absolutely indispensable for an understanding of the content being dealt with. Specific programmes consist of formal and nonformal academic courses on a given subject, which may be education itself, agriculture, health, livestock breeding, domestic economy, political and civic education, mathematics, culture, religion, etc. While the content is generally determined through the assessment of national and local demands and needs, the approach is dictated by the nature of the specific clientele. In non-academic programmes, the content is related to significant community interests, e.g. the construction of a sewage pit, control of malaria, water treatment, household remedies, etc.

Preparation, Production, Distribution

In some countries the programmes are directly conceived, prepared, organised, and presented solely by the adult education institutions. In others the adult education personnel serve simply to advise the media specialists producing the programmes. In yet other countries, the programmes are organised and produced by various voluntary or private organisations. These organisations either submit the results of their work to examination by adult education personnel or other competent authorities, or else they rely on direct feed-back from listeners or viewers. Sometimes the programmes originate in the lower ranks of the hierarchy. In most countries, the literacy and adult education services depend on the expertise of the radio and television personnel and the cinema producers of their country, some of whom might be expatriates.

The broadcasts are almost always pre-recorded rather than transmitted live. In some countries, departments of literacy and adult education have recording studios of their own, and even broadcasting studios for educational radio. Such studios are generally operated by long-distance education specialists, curriculum experts and radio technicians. Some countries have itinerant teams which patrol the country in order to record programmes on location. The average duration of a broadcast is between 15 and 45 minutes. Sometimes the programmes are directed at individuals; however, with this mode of communication it is impossible to restrict reception to an individual or even a category, e.g. neo-literates. Most countries take advantage of this factor by trying to generate groups of learners organised round receivers which may be provided free of charge, loaned, or simply sold. There is then talk of *Radiophonic schools, radio clubs, listening groups*, etc. One objective of organising such groups is to improve the impact of the broadcasts by soliciting the response and the support of the groups concerned. In *Colombia* the radiophonic school is a group of local people who benefit from one or more elements of the ACPO programmes for their training and development. These aim to make each home a school, to educate towards solidarity and to enable the content conveyed by the media to be assimilated with the help of immediate associates ("auxiliares"). It is estimated that ACPO has more than 40,000 local groups or radio schools with more than 150,000 learners. There are no special buildings. A small group of people (the average is less than 7), frequently members of a family or neighbours, simply meet in one house each day to listen together to the radio, to read and comment on the booklets, the newspaper, the books, etc. (21)

In *Egypt*, since its inception the TV literacy programmes were intended for group viewing centres. There are 350 such viewing centres in 18 governorates with an average of 30 learners in each centre apart from other undefined members. ASFEC offers training courses for members of the viewing centres who are generally police officers who have taught illiterate soldiers in connection with the television programmes.

In *Tanzania*, 7000 radios have been provided free of charge to listening groups. In *Mali*, 1440 listening groups have been organised, each with their own radio set. In *Niger*, radio clubs have been created for educational ends within the FEP (Lifelong Education Centres), where collective listening groups have been formed.

Since listening is also a skill to be acquired, most of the programmes require animators capable of developing such skills in the listeners in order for them to profit from being grouped together. It is often the literacy animator who fulfils this role, although it might also be a neo-literate who has learnt from practice. Sometimes this task is assigned to mobile teams which leave the national centre to criss-cross the countryside, meeting listeners at definite points and precise times as arranged over the air. The responsibilities of the groups for internal discipline and for the maintenance of the receiver and its battery supplies has resulted in various approaches and has given rise to problems which we shall examine later.

Evaluation

The various results obtained and the evaluative methods employed seem to be almost uniform. Most countries have set up *listening groups* which make use of either personal receivers or a community receiver and which send their reactions either to the national broadcasting centre or to a regional co-ordinating body. It is with respect to the skills inculcated in the writing of the listening reports and also with respect to the follow-up of the analysis of these reports that the countries differ.

Some countries have organised and held national seminars as a response to the reports received. Others have used these reports to revise their various programmes and make them more appropriate.

In some cases *(Tanzania, Mali, Burkina Faso)*, a guide for the writing of the listening reports in the form of a questionnaire is attached to the printed material which accompanies each broadcast, thus providing a form of built-in evaluation.

Evaluation is undertaken for the most part by the listening groups themselves or by the more general audience, and rarely by external teams. Only *Tanzania* has planned for a systematic external evaluation of the enterprise.

Problems and Difficulties

The audio-visual media rely on the use of electronic equipment which is generally produced outside the countries concerned. The processes of preparation, production, etc. are governed by factors such as the quality and power of the equipment, the level of maintenance required, the degree of expertise and efficiency of the personnel charged with its handling, the costs involved, and by the limits imposed on the learning process by the very nature of the media.

The following are some problems which have arisen with respect to preparation, production and distribution:

- The extent of listening is affected by the relatively high cost of the receivers. The expense of television severely restricts access to it. In addition electricity is often lacking, and the batteries intended to make up for this deficiency are too short-lived.

- Remote areas of the country often suffer from bad reception and the increased cost of maintaining antiquated equipment.
- Because it is necessary to have recourse to the existing national broadcasting networks, the allocated broadcasting hours are not always sufficient or appropriate. Adult education programmes are often relegated to second place because they do not constitute one of the priorities of the national broadcasting networks. The result is that the programmes are often broadcast at times when the populations concerned or interested are occupied with their work from which they draw their means of sustenance. An additional problem is the fact that the broadcasts are often too few and too short.
- In some countries reception suffers from the interference caused by powerful transmitters in neighbouring states. The reception of foreign broadcasts also on occasion results in conflicting information.

Another series of difficulties is apparently connected with training; the educationists or experts in charge of the programme do not always realise that listening is a skill which has to be acquired. They base their whole strategy on the assumption that the audience listens well and rarely set up an adequate mechanism to evaluate the impact of their activities.

Some programmes have been confronted with the collapse of their listening groups. This comes about through the heterogeneity in the levels of the listeners, on the one hand, and on the other, through the irregularity with which participants attend the collective listening sessions.

The indifference of experts with regard to educational programmes and the lack of co-ordination between the bodies involved constitute further sources of difficulty.

The limitations inherent in the very nature of the modern media, such as we enumerated in the introduction to this chapter, have repercussions on the production and the reach of the programmes.

Some Solutions and Suggestions

In the face of the problems they have met with, some countries have worked out solutions which merit attention on account of their innovative character and appropriateness to specific local conditions. It remains evident that, despite the similarity of the obstacles encountered - or created - by the use of the modern media, there cannot be uniformity either in the approaches or in the remedies offered. However, certain attempts to meet the technical, organisational, and training problems occasioned by the use of educational technologies in the framework of post-literacy are worth noting.

- In order to improve the position of the post-literacy radio programmes within the national broadcasting system, there exists a series of approaches varying from country to country. These range from the fixing of a daily *(Brazil, Mali, Tanzania)* or weekly *(Niger, Senegal)* broadcast to the setting up of a separate channel *(Burkina Faso, Colombia, Ethiopia, Jamaica, Venezuela)* whose main activity is education through radio.

- Linked to this aspect is that of the variable and often inappropriate programme length resulting from the broadcasting slot assigned. One approach, which is found in *Mali*, is to devote a whole day to the rural world, during which intensive and varied programmes are broadcast. The day that has been chosen is Friday, the farmers' day of rest. To judge from the numerous and enthusiastic responses which have been received, it can safely be said that this programme is by far the most listened to and appreciated of Mali's National Radio Broadcasts.

- Co-ordination problems are tackled by setting up a committee, cell, council, or other harmonising structure to meet weekly *(Tanzania)*, monthly, or, as in the majority of cases, occasionally, so as to take decisions on the role and contribution of the parties concerned with the preparation, execution, follow-up, and evaluation of the programmes.

- Further techniques which have been tried out in an attempt to overcome certain of the barriers against a more intensive and wider use of the modern media include the following:

(1) To counter the shortage of receivers, listening points have been multiplied in *Ethiopia* by linking to each receiver additional loudspeakers positioned in neighbouring rooms, which thus become supplementary listening points.

(2) In *Niger*, maintenance is assured by mobile teams responsible for patrolling the lifelong education centres (FEPs) to service both the printing equipment of the rural press and the technical equipment of the radio clubs.

(3) In *Mali*, the mobile maintenance teams have the additional task of dispensing at the village level basic training in the upkeep and repair of radio sets to the animators of listening groups.

(4) Current practices in the provision of batteries for radio sets vary from country to country and even within the same programme. Some countries have chosen to provide batteries to the listening groups free of charge in order to prevent any disruption in the supply from paralysing the group activity. The risk is great that animators might abuse such generosity or that groups may break up when such a subsidy is withdrawn. Other countries, while furnishing the radio sets free of charge, leave the groups and villages with the responsibility of acquiring the batteries and maintaining the radio sets. It is thought that in this way a greater sense of responsibility can be obtained from the participants for the maintenance of their radio sets and adherence to the programmes. The alternatives implemented by the villagers range from subscriptions for the purchase of stocks to renewal by a different individual each time.

- The effectiveness of the modern media is increased when their use is intimately and harmoniously linked with that of the printed media and other post-literacy strategies. In *Colombia*, the system developed by ACPO was based on reaching the scattered population through the mass media, specially radio and printed material. In order to attain fuller participation from the 'campesino' communities, and to improve the relevance and effectiveness of its transmissions, ACPO complemented programmes with the person-to-person work of 'educational agents' in the communities, and with volunteer campesinos who served as teaching auxiliaries, as animators and as links between the learners and the ACPO management. Correspondence was also used to support these actions. The multi-media package of ACPO includes:

(1) *Educational Radio* broadcasting educational, cultural, and recreational programmes in different areas from 6 transmitters (SUTATENZA) and volunteer local stations.

(2) *The Weekly Newspaper "El Campesino"*

(3) *Printed booklets* designed to complement the radio programmes and the weekly newspaper. Six booklets present briefly some facts and technical practices in matters concerning health, the economy, community development, civic development, budgeting and numeracy skills, language and communication skills, continuing studies and moral and civic values.

(4) *The Campesino Library:* This was a collection of more than 80 titles selected for the rural and urban marginal population. Easy to read and with information about important technologies applied in daily life, they also dealt with a number of cultural issues and matters of human development concerning the improvement of family and community life.

(5) *Recordings:* By means of magnetophonic recordings, records and audio-visual aids (SONO-VISO), ACPO extended its educational outreach through local volunteer radio stations, agencies which worked with specific groups and rural communities and had the opportunity to multiply the action through community centres.

(6) *Correspondence:* ACPO employed correspondence as a means of providing orientation and encouragement, and to respond to learners who raised queries or made comments about the mass media programmes or asked for further help. Correspondence was also used by ACPO as a way of receiving feedback and of following up its actions.

(7) *Institutes for leaders:* In 1953 ACPO started to use information centres to provide academic and practical training for adult leaders. The basic objective was to improve the participants' academic level, develop their motivation and skills to act as community leaders, convey training in technologies useful for the improvement of life conditions in production, housing, nutrition, hygiene and health, and in community action for organising home towns and ensuring the well-being of their inhabitants.

(8) *Field promotors:* In order to contact the potential audience for its mass media programmes directly, ACPO has created regional and local organisations in which leaders who have received training in the institutes operate. They interacted with families, community organisations, functionaries of government, and non-governmental (private and church) development agencies. These leaders encouraged the participation of the target population and provided feedback on cultural action.

(9) *Consultancy:* Because it had accumulated a very considerable amount of experience, ACPO served other educational and social development agencies, especially in training designers and managers for nonformal education programmes and for the use of the media in distance education. This service had been extended to a number of other Latin American countries. (22)

- In *Tanzania*, the radio programmes are listed in brochures indicating the main themes and the times of broadcast; these brochures are distributed both to the listening groups and to the learning institutions. Radio schedules are also published in the rural newspapers of the different zones. In *Mali*, the radio broadcasts are supported by visual aids composed of posters and photographs, and writing is always linked with the listening sessions.

- In Latin America, especially in *Brazil*, *Colombia*, *Cuba*, *and Venezuela*, radio courses provide a complete alternative to the formal system, thanks to the establishment of equivalent stages and the awarding of appropriate certificates or diplomas to those assiduous learners who pass the examinations.

The material concerning the use of small media was gathered essentially during the Latin American regional phase of the project and in the course of the training seminar rather than from the case studies commissioned. The major experiences, as summarised by Dr José Rivero, are the following:

- The *cassette-forum method:* a communications system of community promotion meant for the service of rural and urban popular organisations. It is inter-group and operative in both directions. Through the exchange of messages recorded on cassettes, it allows the grass-roots organisations to establish a distance dialogue, both among themselves and with the directive group. It has been used in *Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru and Venezuela.*

- IMDEC (Mexican Institute for Community Development) in Guadalajara, *Mexico*, and SONOVISO in Lima, *Peru* along with many other experiences employ audio-visual facilities as the primary communication/education medium. Slides are combined with audio-cassettes on which popular codes have been recorded, and they serve the motivational purpose of introducing discussion and analysis by the group.

- In *Venezuela*, CESAP (Centre at the Service of Popular Action) is conducting popular group courses employing multi-media material and dramatic episodes that are common in popular sectors.

- In *Chile*, CIDE (Educational Research and Development Centre) combines slides, pictures, educational booklets and educational group games in courses geared to farm workers and urban marginal people.

- In *Peru*, one of the main educational extension programmes generated by the last educational reform consisted of promoting dynamic science and technology museums in which scientific investigations and experiments conducted with waste materials were presented to groups of people who were urged to participate individually and collectively. (23)

4.2 Correspondence Courses

Together with radio, television and the other electronic media, correspondence courses form part of what is referred to as "distance education". This type of education is based on the printed word or on mechanical or electronic devices which serve to bridge the physical separation between learner and teacher. The specific nature of this strategy finds expression in the fact that it implies a two-way communication based on pre-established material, and - whatever the methodology and the strategies applied might be - it leads to individual learning. Independence and autonomy are typical features of distance education. Very often it is up to the learners to decide not only how to learn but also what to learn. It is thus a form of "open school" whose basic principle is to furnish participants with resources for education, wherever they might be, and above all to provide education to those who are not able to go where permanent facilities exist.

Two supplementary remarks are imperative: the first concerns the personal qualities indispensable for successful participation in a distance education course. Among these are certain cognitive achievements, a degree of autonomy in learning, work-discipline, and speed in the execution of the assigned tasks. The second observation concerns the insignificant proportion of neo-literates from adult classes on these courses, which are directed mainly towards the training of trainers and the continuing education of young people who for one reason or another have interrupted or given up their studies and are hence to be given a "second chance".

Objectives, Content and Clientele

While it may seem paradoxical, the clientele ranges from illiterates at one extreme to literacy teachers and people wishing to obtain professional qualifications in areas such as management at the other. This range reflects two distinct trends. One is the conception of post-literacy as a part of a lifelong education continuum. The other is the increasing realisation that development at the grass-roots level involves the participation of all, including the illiterates, the literates, literacy personnel, extension workers, etc., and the use of literacy not as an end in itself but as a tool for achieving a more comprehensive set of goals. The correspondence courses for farmers developed by *INADES* (Institut Africain pour le Développement Economique et Social - African Institute for Economic and Social Development), in which not only the neo-literates but also illiterates, extension workers, and local leaders participate, and which rely on a method involving the whole village, represent the more innovative type of correspondence course. The more usual and traditional types of courses are concerned with more academic areas and involve some kind of accreditation and certification. Most of the clientele for these more academic courses are literacy personnel (many of whom are themselves neo-literates), primary school teachers, and extension workers. Another significant group is composed of young adults who use these courses as an alternative and equivalent to the formal secondary school.

Naturally, the objectives and content reflect the needs of the clientele. *Burkina Faso*, which uses the INADES/FORMATION courses, would like to have the farmers acquire knowledge of agriculture and livestock techniques in their own language without having to leave their farms, and at their own convenience. The INADES/FORMATION courses, which are in French, have been translated into the local languages in *Burkina Faso*, *Burundi* and *Ethiopia*. The education of training officers in modern agriculture is a further objective in *Burkina Faso*. *Venezuela*, which provides more academic correspondence courses designed for young adults, stresses the need to develop individual responsibility, development, and learning. The content conforms to that offered in the formal secondary school. This attempt in Venezuela is a part of a wider move to "search for alternatives which permit the incorporation of a greater number of participants in the educational process". (24)

In *Colombia* correspondence was constantly employed to obtain feedback from ACPO programmes. This element integrates the media, and promotes services and personal, family and community development activities. ACPO divided the country into 7 geographical zones for facilitating the receiving and processing of letters and for replying to them. An average of 120 letters were received daily. Replies were made through the radio programmes, the weekly newspaper *El Campesino* or directly by another letter. The letters received also constituted an excellent means of evaluation. (25)

Tanzania has five types of correspondence courses, namely, mass elementary or basic courses, 'O' level courses, 'A' level courses, vocational courses, and teacher training courses. These are based on national syllabi and include subject areas such as English, Swahili, mathematics, political education, geography, science, and psychology.

Organisation and Methods of Implementation and Marking

The repetitive two-way exchange and the need for a permanent follow-up necessitate the setting up of an effective administrative machinery; this is crucial for the success of any enterprise in correspondence education. The launching of any institution for correspondence courses requires that careful consideration be paid to questions relating to location, links with already existing agencies, relay stations, and branch offices.

To these structural elements may be added academic and management functions, especially the mode of administration and distribution of responsibility called for by an enterprise of this scope. But it is the postal service which is the pillar of any correspondence education system.

In *Venezuela*, the Department of Educational Innovation has responsibility at the national level for the design and production of learning materials, the training of personnel, the distribution of financial resources, and the overall evaluation and supervision of the correspondence course. At the local level, there are Centres of Distance Education which provide participants with learning resources, instructional assistance, facilities for group activities, and evaluation services. The Centres of Distance Education are supervised by the Zonal Adult Education Section. The participants are at liberty to choose how they use the Centres to pursue their studies. For example, they might study at home and visit the Centre for evaluation when they feel ready. Or they might obtain guidance about the programme, methods of study, evaluation, etc. at the Centre. They are at liberty to choose between self-evaluation and external evaluation conducted by the instructors of the Centre

Although INADES/FORMATION has a more centralised structure, it is moving towards decentralisation. The Headquarters at Abidjan has been progressively transferring to relay centres certain of its responsibilities relating to enrolment, the dispatch of courses, marking, and the organisation of face-to-face sessions. The absence of the kind of infrastructural support available in the Venezuelan programme makes written exchange the main work-tool of INADES.

Booklets printed by INADES form the heart of the organisation's teaching method. Each booklet covers three or four lessons and includes a series of detachable question-sheets which constitute the correspondence element. These sheets include three kinds of

(1) Simple questions to check what the learner has assimilated. The answers to this kind of question can generally be found in the text.

(2) Questions which require the individual to reflect and which thus throw light on the effort made to understand the course.

(3) Questions intended to establish a dynamic link between the content taught and the concrete experience accumulated by the participant.

A supplementary page is reserved for any other remarks a participant may wish to make on the course and on his progress.

Despite such an approach centred on the individual and requiring high motivation and a relatively high degree of literacy, INADES nevertheless encourages the setting up of study groups which include even semi-literate persons and illiterates. In *Burkina Faso*, groups of 4-12 farmers working together in the same field or growing the same sort of crops are encouraged to subscribe collectively to the correspondence course.

Difficulties and Innovative Aspects

The correspondence courses depend on two conditions which are difficult to fulfil in the developing countries: an adequate threshold of literacy and an efficient communication and postal network. *Venezuela*, better provided than the other countries studied, has solved the problem by establishing intermediary structures which are both well equipped and well staffed.

In *Tanzania*, besides adequate supervisory structures located throughout the country, there is also recourse to the services of other organisational structures for the distribution of material and the collection of homework.

In all cases, enrolment fees are kept at a modest level in order to encourage as many people as possible to participate. In *Tanzania*, the dues paid by students cover hardly more than the cost of paper and dispatch. In *Venezuela*, the 150 bolivares (15 US $) paid by the participants cover only the cost of the study material. In *Burkina Faso*, the farmer encloses the symbolic sum of 500 F CFA (1.5 US $) with his enrolment form as his contribution to the costs of his education.

As we have already indicated, correspondence courses are often born from a desire to overcome certain difficulties and inadequacies encountered in direct education. Thus there is recourse to face-to-face contacts in order to give a human dimension to the communication which has already been initiated and to settle certain aspects of the learning process which cannot be resolved at a distance. INADES supports its courses by study seminars for its various target publics. In *Venezuela*, educational advisors are attached to each distance education centre in order to provide the learners with any necessary orientation.

The lack of training on the part of the study directors in *Tanzania* is addressed by occasional refresher workshops on the methodology, organisation, and monitoring of correspondence education.

Certification plays a dominant role in all of the cases studied. INADES delivers a certificate which does not have the value of a diploma. The research studies in Tanzania confirm that most of the participants aim either at obtaining certificates, or at applying for more interesting and better paid employment. The correspondence courses of *Venezuela* prepare participants for the examinations in the formal sector.

In all these cases it is clear that effective programmes depend for their success on linkage with other post-literacy strategies and the formal school system, and on the adequate combination of distance and face-to-face teaching.

4.3 Programme of the Popular Training Fund (FCP) of INRAVISION in Colombia (26)

The Popular Training Fund (FCP) is an official agency attached to the National Institute for Radio and Television (INRAVISION), which, in turn, depends on the Ministry of

Communication. It was created in 1967 to accomplish an educational service through mass media such as radio, television and printed materials.

Objectives

- to increase the number of educational opportunities in order to offer to all the sectors of the Colombian population access to literacy, primary and secondary education and other nonformal programmes for cultural extension;

- to develop their own models of distance education through radio and television;

- to support the individual and group processes of education;

- to help to solve, partly, the shortage of teachers, classrooms, materials and other educational resources;

- to reach those sectors of the population having a higher number of illiterates or persons who could not continue their primary or secondary basic education at school age;

- to promote community participation and the involvement of public and private agencies;

- to present pedagogic strategies and other alternatives which should improve the quality of education and encourage self-education.

Organisation

In order to attain the above-mentioned objectives, the FCP organisation consists of pedagogical, educational production, administrative, research and evaluation sections - all of which are grouped under a single general direction.

- Director: Appointed by the Directive Council of INRAVISION, the director - as the highest authority - has the responsibility of exercising direct control over the Third Television Channel. He represents the FCP and co-ordinates all its actions with other agencies.

- Pedagogic Section: This designs and produces all the programmes, including the textbooks, scripts for radio and television, booklets and guides covering the areas of literacy, primary and secondary education, and some nonformal programmes in co-ordination with other agencies (e.g. health). In addition, it offers advice for the production of radio and television programmes.

- Educational Production Section: This section prepares educational material such as films, slides, photographs, drawings, video and magnetophonic tapes, which are needed for the radio and television programmes. It is responsible for the production and recording of the different programmes.

- Administrative Section: It manages FCP's material and economic resources. The tasks of receiving correspondence and despatching materials are done by the group in charge of the archives. This section also does the enrolment for the different courses in primary and secondary education.

- Research and Evaluation Section: This section is responsible for the statistical processing of data about the programmes and the achievement evaluation of the students. It promotes the programmes at the community level and gives orientations to the cultural guides.

Target Population

The target population is very heterogeneous in regard to age, expectations, needs and interests, place of origin, place of living and sex, among other variables.

Each of the programmes has a particular audience according to its interests and needs, which are taken into account for the curriculum approach. In general, the audience of these educational programmes is composed of people who:

- had never attended basic primary or secondary education at the usual school age;

- had interrupted formal studies for several years;

- expect to continue their formal training and to update their knowledge.

The audience is, in general, formed by very young people: 58% are between 14 and 19 years old; 64% of the learners are women.

Programmes

FCP carries out two types of programmes:

- Formal programmes:

  Basic Primary Education for Adults including literacy through television, and Basic Secondary Education for Adults through radio.

- Nonformal programmes:

  These allow the general television audience to update their knowledge in regard to science, culture, sports and arts. They serve as means for the communities to express their opinions, to show and disseminate their folklore, their achievements, their identity, making possible the participation of the people in socio-cultural development actions. These types of programmes also disseminate other public and private agencies' programmes whose contents suit the proposed objectives.

The Ministry of Education delegated to FCP the responsibility of curriculum design of basic education for adults. This work has been done in co-ordination with some departments of the ministry itself, the National Pedagogic University, the National Institute of Development of Natural Resources (IDERENA), the Ministry of Health and the Regional Population Centre. For the elaboration of curriculum, the sense of reality of the plans and programmes of Basic Education for Adults was taken into account in such a way that it responds to the basic needs, interests and problems of the Colombian population.

The following "generating" themes were selected for the development of the curriculum for Basic Primary Education for Adults:

- *Work* (first-grade literacy)
- *Community* (second grade)
- *Environment* (third grade)

- *Economy* (fourth grade)

- *The State* (fifth grade)

Methodology

Literacy and basic primary education are broadcast through the Third Television Channel. Secondary education (1st and 4th grades) is broadcast through Radio Nacional and also through some private radio stations which have undertaken this as volunteer social work or with those that have been contracted by the regional Secretariats of Education.

Each theme of the programmes is presented during 15 minutes by a "tele-teacher", who demonstrates basic aspects using illustrations or examples taken from the daily life of adults.

After each programme the groups who have watched it go deep into the theme guided by a facilitator who answers individual questions and orientates group work. Printed materials, previously prepared and distributed, are available for this type of work.

Strategies

In order to complement the programmes and accomplish the pre-established objectives, the FCP combines various learning strategies:

(1) Printed materials

Materials have been prepared for the adults who constitute the target population with the objective of providing basic material for the learning process. The design includes basic contents for the adults, as well as drilling exercises and evaluation activities.

The selection and elaboration of the contents is in accordance with the following curriculum approach:

- Selection of generating themes

- Elaboration of problem areas

- Production of monographs about each generating theme

- Preparation of curriculum units
- Preparation of units for each theme in the form of lessons which constitute the printed materials for the students.

These materials were published at the National Printing Press, according to the budget, or by private printers after the legally required bidding.

The size of the characters varies according to the level of the students for which the material is intended. Thus, for literacy, 1st and 2nd grade script characters are larger than at the other levels.

Technical vocabulary is seldom used; the language employed is usually colloquial and presented in the form of dialogues, emphasising the need for regional adaptations. Illustrations and images are simple and refer to common daily life activities of adults. Photographs are also combined with the drawings in order to develop observation skills.

In addition to the basic material for the students at each level, a teachers' guide has been prepared for each grade of primary education.

Motivation for and promotion of the programmes are done through radio and television. Materials are distributed in the agriculture provision stores of the Agrarian Fund in each municipality.

Literacy booklets and the registration forms are distributed free of cost by the regional Secretariats of Education.

(2) Radio programmes

These are broadcasts by Radio Nacional. Each course lasts five months. At present the schedule for primary education (medium wave) is from 7.00 a.m. to 7.30 a.m. Recommendations are given to the students indicating the need to devote two to three hours each day for reviewing the lesson and practising the exercises. No examinations are required up to the fourth grade. This means that any person who has followed a course can pass to the next. At the end of the fifth grade the student must take an exam which is administered by the National Testing Service of the Colombian Institute for Fostering Higher Education - ICFES. Those who pass the exam obtain a primary education certificate.

For secondary education, Radio Nacional broadcasts (medium wave) four courses at the following times:

First grade	19.00	to	20.00	hours
Second grade	20.00	to	21.00	hours
Third grade	5.00	to	6.00	hours
Fourth grade	6.00	to	7.00	hours

At the end of each course students must present themselves for an examination prepared by ICFES. Those who pass the exam receive the corresponding certificate, which enables them to continue in the next course.

Radio is the fundamental element of the system. For each of the courses one hour of broadcast time is available. During this time three or four areas are treated. The lesson constitutes orientation, explanations and suggestions about the contents presented as printed material. There is a written lesson corresponding to each lesson broadcast by radio.

(3) Cultural television

There are in Colombia three television channels operated by INRAVISION. The broadcasting bands of Channels 1 and 2 are rented to private programming agencies. Channel 3 is exclusively devoted to educational, cultural and recreational programmes prepared or selected by the FCP in co-ordination with INRAVISION.

Channel 3 broadcasts educational programmes of an open type intended for the general population. From Monday to Friday there is a series of programmes covering various themes of general interest and providing information about advances and achievements in the fields of science, culture, technology, sports, history, geography, etc. both in Colombia and in other countries.

These are interesting programmes for children and youngsters, as well as for adults. Channel 3 produces some programmes in co-ordination with other agencies and universities.

Channel 3 does not reach the whole country. It only covers Bogotá, 50% of the municipalities in Cundinamarca, 70% of the municipalities in Tolima, and some municipalities in Antioquía and Caldas. For this reason Basic Primary Education for Adults courses are broadcast on Channel 2 in the afternoon from 15.00 to 17.00 hours.

(4) Correspondence

The students are constantly invited to write directly to the FCP when they have doubts to be clarified. They are also encouraged to make inquiries of a pedagogic nature. They are requested to register the grade, the subject, the number of the lesson and the number of the fascicule or written lesson.

Each inquiry from a student receives a written answer. In many cases these inquiries have contributed to the design of the courses.

(5) Evaluation

The monitoring system, which starts with the registration of students, provides data about the number of persons enrolled in the courses as well as their academic achievements. It receives information: from the Agrarian Fund Offices about the sales of printed material; from private radio broadcasting stations; from requisitions and reports; from correspondence, telephone calls and personal visits to the FCP; and from ICFES about the registration for examinations and the analysis of the students' results in the exams.

5. RURAL LIBRARIES

Objectives and Characteristics

Libraries have an important role to play in literacy campaigns and post-literacy work, for the distribution of reading material raises almost insurmountable problems, and bookshops are confined to urban and large rural centres. It therefore seems necessary to have a propitious place for learning in general and for reading in particular - a place where several strategies of continuing education converge. Concerning the characteristics of lifelong education, we have already mentioned the necessity of structures which can initiate learning and provide for its continuation. A library is one such structure.

Libraries offer the best means of assembling the available reading stock, organising contact and reference services, and providing reading matter and other reader-aids for consultation or for borrowing. The library is intended as a bulwark against a relapse into illiteracy. It strengthens reading ability and provides neo-literates and other users with the chance to benefit from a literate environment which gives them the opportunity to apply their skills. This environment includes a human dimension; there is always someone, viz. a librarian, who lends, receives, looks after the books, advises, etc., a group of people bound together - perhaps very loosely - by their common interest in reading.

In the light of this, the rural library, whether it be well or poorly stocked, stationary or mobile, with or without permanent premises, should be viewed as a structure which constitutes in itself a valuable strategy for the promotion of learning within post-literacy programmes.

Not all countries which have launched post-literacy programmes have set up rural libraries as post-literacy strategies, and not all the case study authors have described their national experiences. The available documentation shows that the significant experiences in this area are taking place in *India*, *Niger*, and *Tanzania*.

Some Achievements

In *India*, the role allotted to the village library as a strategy varies from state to state, despite the obvious ubiquitous interest. Five states (*Tamil Nadu*, *Andra Pradesh*, *Karnataka*, *Maharashtra*, *and West Bengal*) have passed legislation on libraries, and of these the first three have even imposed a special tax to provide for library budgets.

The system established in these three states is composed of three administrative levels: there are

(1) district branches,

(2) urban and rural branches (in conglomerations of 5,000 inhabitants or more), and

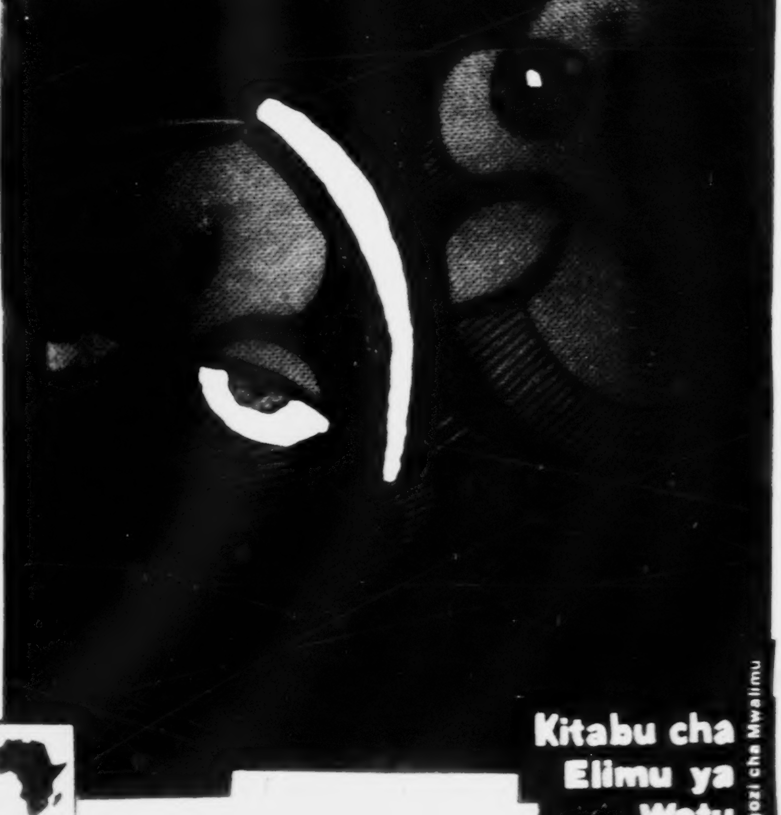
(3) delivery stations in outlying communities with less than 1,000 inhabitants.

These stations are in each case run by the village schoolmaster, who receives a contractual honorarium for his duties. The other states grant subsidies to libraries offering services in villages of 5,000 inhabitants, except in certain areas where the library network is very much denser. In these states there exist both private and public libraries.

In most of the other states, the libraries are essentially the work of private institutions and voluntary societies and exist in varying numbers and with varying success. Most rural libraries are therefore municipal libraries in form, kept by voluntary organisations while sometimes enjoying support from the state government.

It is to their credit that certain organisations have set up a great number of libraries; there is one voluntary organisation in the state of *Kerala*, for example, which has brought no less than 4,091 village libraries into being, with a million users and ca. eight million books. However, these include many urban libraries for the use of school-educated people. The Council of Adult Education in the state of *Karnataka* has for its part created twelve central libraries, twenty-two distribution libraries, and about 3,000 rural libraries. The library service in the state of *Uttar Pradesh* consists of 8,852 rural libraries.

With such a wide diversity in library organisation, and in view of the large proportion of illiterates in this immense country (especially in rural areas), it is almost impossible to envisage a single or uniform strategy for the library within the field of post-literacy.



Kitabu cha Elimu ya Watu Wazima

Kiongozi cha Mwalimu

AMAJAMBERE [illegible]

Tanzania is confronted by a severe shortage of reading material and by an inadequate distribution network. In order to overcome this, it has been decided to create favourable learning conditions by instituting a library service to supplement the Tanzanian Library Service. Hence all efforts have been concentrated on new literates and other potential users in rural areas. The project, which was started on an experimental basis in the Lake Zone, has now been implemented throughout the mainland; at present 2,781 libraries, out of the total of 8,000 planned to cover all of Tanzania's villages, have been set up. Each of the country's 2,000 wards is now equipped with its own rural library centre.

Book Supply and Management

The traditional library is a rather expensive educational enterprise, requiring investments in books, furniture, and other facilities. Over and above this, a modest and efficient organisational mechanism needs to be set up. The rural library is often restricted to a box of books designed to attract either neo-literates or to reach them wherever they might be. In this respect the Indian libraries excel in their diversity: The available titles number between several hundred and hundreds of thousands of volumes.

In *Niger*, the minimum and uniform stock of books is set at 30 titles dealing with technical subjects, cultural themes, and games for learning to read, write and calculate. The budgetary provision for each rural library is estimated at 30,000 CFA (US $ 100). Books are purchased in neighbouring countries.

In *Tanzania*, it is intended eventually to stock each rural library with almost 500 titles, with two copies of each title. By 1981, each library had attained an average stock of 400 titles.

Most books are acquired from commercial publishers for an average of some 20 Tanzanian shillings (US $ 1.50). The rest, produced by the Ministry of National Education, are placed at the libraries' disposal free of charge. Newspapers and other post-literacy material are also available. The Tanzanian libraries are an integral component of the country's adult education programme. There are branches in the districts and the outskirts in accordance with the organisational structure. They are run by literacy teachers who receive a two-week course in library techniques, followed by one-week refresher courses every two years. The librarians' duties include the organisation of the library centre, the compilation of monthly and quarterly reports (on both the general state of affairs and on the particular activities taking place in the centre), and the replenishment of stocks. The librarians are furthermore responsible for counselling readers and for initiating and running discussion groups.

Premises, Organisation and Distribution

The approaches vary within the countries. As mentioned earlier, the libraries take different shapes: some have their own buildings, others use school or health premises, and yet others benefit from facilities offered by political leaders.

In *Niger*, the FEP (Lifelong Education Centre) is the umbrella organisation for all post-literacy activities. The village library constitutes one of its schemes. On the basis of a contract between the village and the National Literacy Service, the Niger library is run by an adult selected by his peers and given a two-week practical training course. Libraries are housed either in the teacher's home or in the literacy centre, which provides both premises and equipment. The basic equipment consists of a wooden or metal box with a padlock. The present number of libraries is estimated at 80. For each book lost an adult must pay 500 CFA (US $ 1.50). The library is linked to a discussion group which organises talks with visiting specialists, collective reading sessions, and inter-village cultural exchanges.

The library in this case is stationary in the traditional sense. It is left to the readers to go to the FEP, either to read the materials and take part in connected activities, or to borrow books for use at home or in the community. The book bag moves only occasionally within the village or from village to village.

No systematic survey has yet dealt with the library situation in Niger, but the pace of book-renewal and the orders for new titles bear witness to the interest in library activities shown by neo-literates.

In *Tanzania*, the ideal library is meant to have its own premises and be equipped with shelves, cupboards, chairs, book boxes or bags for the distribution rounds, and tables. Most libraries, however, are not fully equipped and are often located in primary schools, dispensaries, primary courts, co-operative societies, political party offices, and sometimes even in private houses.

The rural librarian is provided with a bicycle and a bookbox/bag for circulating books to the outlying villages. His salary is 30 Tanzanian shillings a month.

Each library is linked to a reading circle, which is often run by the librarian. The club fulfils various useful functions: it provides a framework in which the contents of difficult material can be explained to the new literates and in which books, authors' ideas, or the practical value of works being read can be discussed or recommended; it represents a context in which discussions can lead to important decisions on how to solve everyday problems. There the participants can often learn how to summarize texts and can try their hand at compiling simple stories on how to collect and transcribe texts from the oral tradition.

Surveys taken in 1975 and 1976 give a clear picture of the weaknesses in the supervisory structure, of inadequate material and basic infrastructure, and of a certain lack of staff motivation resulting in a high rate of staff turnover. Furthermore, it appears that an insufficient quantity of Swahili titles were purchased, which means that certain readers have exhausted the available stocks and are left with nothing more to read. The findings demonstrate that, on the one hand, the present stocks do not meet the requirements of users in terms of either quality or quantity, and, on the other hand, that there is a strong demand for reading matter dealing with national and cultural development.

In 1981, a reform was already under way with the aim of taking functional and structural steps towards a much greater professionalism in the regional organisation of the library service.

In *India*, some organisations have tried to establish mobile libraries in order to reach the most remote and inaccessible areas of the country. The form adopted for this end depends very much on the means of transportation required by the local topography - be it a bicycle, a motorbike, a canoe, a rickshaw, or an animal-drawn conveyance. Bags, boxes, cases, etc. are used so as to extract the greatest benefit from the form of transport available. The Literacy House in Lucknow employs several itinerary and calendar schedules in order to serve the largest number of villages at the least possible cost. In order to reach a wider audience from surrounding areas, several organisations visit fairs with their mobile libraries.

Beyond mere reading facilities, many libraries undertake related motivational activities. Some assume the role of the continuing education centres and often function in tandem with a literacy centre. Others organise writers' workshops and discussion sessions, publish newspapers, and provide help in preparing for examinations.

The [illegible] of the [illegible]

Despite the spectacular nature of some projects, the results of the operation are not always conclusive. The difficulties encountered are imputed to the shortage of qualified personnel, material and financial resources, to the meagre interest often shown by officials and local readers, to the deficient co-ordination between the various agencies and to the absence of a coherent national policy for developing a library strategy.

The library represents a suitable context and structure for the unification and co-ordination of the other post-literacy strategies previously described. It contains reading material and provides shelter for reading clubs, discussion groups, and listening groups. Better still, it is capable of mounting a bicycle or a horse, of getting into a vehicle or a canoe and thereby reaching out to readership in the villages and marketplaces. We are still a long way from the omnipresent library which can offer a fast and high-quality delivery service to its widely scattered readership. Available book stocks rarely exceed a thousand titles. The Tanzanian library can offer 400 titles. In Niger, even though the libraries make purchases (beyond the national production) of books published in bordering countries sharing the same language ([illegible], Mali and Nigeria), it is not uncommon to find readers who have exhausted the whole range of titles available from the FEP several times over. In addition to this quantitative inadequacy, there is also a tendency to provide only utilitarian books pertinent either to the continuation of learning or to the use of received knowledge for immediate problem-solving. Some surveys, however, suggest that now many readers have a preference for epics, short stories, and other entertainment material.

The point in question is not the library or its function, nor the quality of the material, nor the service being provided, but rather the shortage of material published in the languages used for literacy - as has already been pointed out in the chapter related to the production of reading matter. The establishment of small and efficient mobile printing units would greatly facilitate the discovery of new talent and the distribution of the few available publications. This measure would encourage reading and the production of new reading material. And, given the way in which study groups tend to select and assimilate those contents which have immediate practical value for the whole of the community (including illiterates), the introduction of such printing units would have a positive bearing upon action taken to attain greater control over the social environment and to improve the quality of life.

6. LEARNING STRATEGIES BASED ON LOCAL STUDY GROUPS AND ACTION GROUPS, TRADITIONAL MEDIA, SPORTS, AND GAMES

The several learning strategies being considered together here have certain features in common which set them apart from the others. The very word traditional, which may be applied to all these strategies, implies that they have enjoyed popular acceptance for a considerable time. All the above strategies have existed in purely oral cultures, and even today they might flourish in a country without any specific relation or commitment to literacy. Whether in the developed or the developing world, every community invariably has its local action groups, whatever their objectives, which may indeed range from the pursuit of political revolution to the provision of a service for the elderly. It is perhaps the prevalence and general acceptance of local action groups as modes of action and expression which have led several of the countries involved in this study to use them to promote post-literacy and continuing education. At one extreme it may be a very narrow and specific goal which is being served, as for example when a game is introduced with the intention of getting the neo-literates to read: the game is a motivational device and the objective is limited to retention of literacy skills. At the other extreme is the impressive goal of a comprehensive development of man, for which literacy skills are only an instrument. The mastery of literacy is accompanied and supplemented by, for example, sports, which fills, as it were, what would otherwise have been a deficiency in the individual's development. Sports activity may have nothing to do specifically with literacy. Sports, literacy, and other activities have to be considered in relation to each other. The research design for this study, however, did not require an elaboration of this aspect. Strategies have been selected for intensive study, and no country has described the totality of its programmes. This aspect has to be kept in mind in interpreting what follows, particularly when it may appear that what is being described has little to do directly with literacy skills.

It is intended here to touch on all of the learning strategies which are dependent on community groups. It is difficult, if not impossible, to isolate study and action groups as a separate strategy, given that in most of the strategies studied the formation of groups is implied if not directly stated. The radio clubs and the rural libraries are generally coupled with listening groups and study or discussion groups or circles. The stimulus for setting up these groups is to be found in the strategy itself, whether it be a radio, a library or a correspondence strategy. This kind of group action has already been the object of examination in the relevant sections.

The groups discussed in earlier sections were set up with the aim of facilitating learning. But with the local study and action groups under discussion here, it is a matter of benefiting from the existence of groups which have already been constituted and which operate in order to introduce the component "learning" and so bring about within the collectivity the self-reflection, anticipation, and action indispensable in any process of socialisation. Such groups are not concerned with literacy *per se*; they are rather born out of a qualitative approach to development conceived as concerted action bringing about the mobilisation of individuals and their groups for global tasks which merely include literacy and post-literacy. In such a context, post-literacy ends - to employ the terminology of Paulo Freire - with the *re-socialisation* of the individual and the group through the profound change which they undergo and which brings them to *recodify* their vision and their learning. Educational activity is perceived, then, as an intercommunion defined not in terms of the teaching-learning relationship, but in terms of a common life and involvement in shared experiences and enterprises.

Learning in this case is conceived as an additional element in the acquisition of greater experience, with a clear perception of the intended change and with a search for the means which might contribute to that change. The goal is the deepening of knowledge, the expansion of skills, and the consolidation of the capacity to face and resolve the problems which arise.

Such a strategy - more solicited than imposed - addresses itself to subjects who are conscious actors sharing a goal, a frame of reference, and a common past. The organisation, cohesion, discipline, dynamism, and effectiveness which should characterise a group constitute the fertile ground on which group action can take root and flourish. The active possibilities of the life of the group, constituted by its organisational matrix, capacity to respond to needs, and its intrinsic strength, are put to good use in the elaboration of the programmes and methods, and the choice of appropriate contents.

The experiences which have been reported are not legion. From the few concrete cases and fragmentary experiences, we observe some original approaches manifest in certain programmes constructed round a philosophy which, although it has the individual as its end, calls for group action. These approaches go under the names of animation, participation, community development, female advancement, etc.

6.1 Local Study and Action Groups and other Occasional Programmes Based on Special Needs and Interests

Of the twenty countries involved in the research, only a few *(Brazil, India, Indonesia, Mali* and *Venezuela)* describe, and then only partially, experiences with local study and action groups. Since the publication of the first edition of this synthesis, further reports have been received from *Nepal* and *Egypt*. These are now included, but being incomplete, these descriptions cannot provide us with a dynamic picture of this strategy, even when we have recourse to comparisons between countries. The cases mentioned seem, however, to give cause for optimism. The fact that in these cases the authors chose to deviate from the standard form of presentation is significant. And the smallness of the space devoted to analysis of the technique should not be taken as implying any lack of appreciation of the real value of this technique, to which tribute should be paid on account of its dynamic nature and cumulative effect. However, in many Latin American countries the so-called *grass-roots groups* have emerged since the sixties, particularly in the more deprived sectors, as a result of various factors. In some cases, the Catholic Church has been an active promotor, in others, socio-political processes led young people, women, groups of neighbours, members of co-operatives and other adults to join reflection and action groups, which meant a new form of democratic participation in society. Starting from this reality, educators and communicators have begun to use the group as an educational context and to apply group methodologies employing, preferably, small media such as slides, 16 mm or super 8 films, audio-cassettes, etc. (27)

Establishment and Activities of Groups

This strategy finds expression in different forms and is called by various names according to the country and even within a single country. In *Brasil*, group action, conceived of as spontaneous or as sustained by bodies such as the MOBRAL foundation, took a variety of forms. Under the Foundation's *Diversified Community Action Programme (PRODAC)*, the formation of groups occurred at different levels and in different phases which were referred to as *mobilisation*, *organisation of groups*, and *maintenance of work*. The mobilisation phase used all available media to stimulate the participants of the entire community in the intended programme. A specific output of this phase was a participatory survey which not only appraised existing community problems but also came up with possible solutions. During the next phase two types of groups were formed at different levels. One was a community action group at the municipal level and the other was a set of local action groups in specific rural or urban communities within the municipality. Both sets of groups were composed of volunteers. During the second phase the groups drew up their plans. In the third phase the groups tried to execute their plans with the involvement of as many of the local communities as possible.

Other MOBRAL programmes such as those on community health and appropriate technology utilised the groups formed in this manner. The MOBRAL methodology in this respect was succinctly expressed in the following extract:

> *Each MOBRAL programme opens the way for another, that way enabling the individual to grow as a whole person. Since MOBRAL views education as a process whose ultimate objective is man as a whole, each of its perspectives is likely to meet a possibility for growth in the educational process.* (28)

In *Bolivia*, the *Khanatiña* programme, which was previously called *Arusquipasiri* (Let's talk) and which is produced by an institution linked with *ERBOL* (Coordinación de Escuelas Radiofónicas de Bolivia), combines multimedia including radio programmes in the Aymara language, geared to community groups of the high plateau. These groups are provided monthly with a twenty-page booklet, which presents a theme or a conflict of interests; their contents are previously identified by the groups. They are also given questions, and sheets for their answers; the latter are sent to the centre producing the programme and serve as feedback for it.(29)

The *Indian* study describes a scheme initiated by the government for the general development of youth in rural areas. Referred to as *Nehru Yuvak Kendras* (Nehru Youth Centres) or *NYK's*, literacy became one of their major fields of activity with the launching of the National Adult Education Programme. NYK activity in a village begins with the establishment of *Chetana Sangha* (awareness creation groups) led by the village youth. Its initial activities may not be specifically linked to literacy at all. They are more likely to consist of sports, games and various kinds of construction work such as digging wells, clearing roads, and repairing houses. In the next phase, functional training and literacy work gain in importance. This is followed by an increasing concern with post-literacy. The group work is not confined to literacy, but literacy and post-literacy have an important place in the general development work.

Following the broad lines of its education-for-development-strategy, *Indonesia* has launched a vast *Employment-oriented Learning Programme (EOLP)* and has set up a co-ordinated out-of-school education programme under the aegis of the Department of Community Education (*PENMAS*) within the Ministry of Education and Culture. In general, the PENMAS programmes as a whole can be divided into operational and support activities. The operational ones include both formal and nonformal learning. Formal learning programmes comprise established courses with a fixed curriculum that are conducted by PENMAS as well as by private individuals and organisations. The nonformal learning programmes cover learning groups as well as self-instruction courses and apprenticeship programmes. These nonformal learning programmes include instruction in basic education and literacy, family life education and vocational skills.

In 1979, the Directorate of PENMAS introduced a new programme called the *Learning Fund Programme*, later renamed *Employment Oriented Learning Programme (EOLP)*, which addresses one of the most pressing needs of the poor rural clientele, namely the need for income or an increasing income. With some 15,000,000 unemployed or under-employed people between the ages of 12 and 45 in Indonesia, the need to expand opportunities for productive employment has been a major concern.

The main objective is to enable each group of learners to 'market' the skills they already possess. Therefore, the content of learning focuses primarily on increasing learners' knowledge of organising and managing small businesses. An additional objective is to help increase and sharpen the skills of the learners in producing certain goods and providing services. Learning takes place in an actual work situation and the learners are expected to expand their business with the help of the funding provided, ranging from Rp 50 thousand to Rp 150 thousand (US $ 4,000 to 12,000) depending on the type of business enterprise. This means that they have to learn new patterns of ordering materials, marketing products, etc.

Successful implementation of the EOLP calls for careful planning. A series of logical steps are included in organising the learning groups, as follows:

(1) Identification of types of occupation;

(2) Occupational analysis;

(3) Determination of the learning components. In the EOLP, learning does not mean only acquiring new skills, but also discarding old and undesirable attitudes and skills. In other words, it also implies unlearning and relearning. A *curriculum* for this kind of learning group must be developed together with the learners and resource persons;

(4) Selection of certain occupations to develop into EOLP. The group approach and group learning are the wider form used in implementing the EOLP. To support these groups, PENMAS provides a learning fund. Eligibility for the fund is contingent upon criteria which are determined well beforehand;

(5) Revolving funds: The group receiving a learning fund is expected to pass on the same amount to one or more new groups at an appropriate time and help them to settle down and start their business.

An evaluation has shown an average increase of income of 60 % among the participants. Every group saved money for revolving funds averaging Rp 5,000 (US $ 400) a month, and increased its capital by an average of 70-80 %. (30)

Mali is establishing on a trial basis groups of newly literate young people who, while continuing their education in relevant areas of science, also act as foci for the dissemination of appropriate scientific knowledge in their communities. The project, called *Advanced Training of Neo-literates*, is still in the experimental stage. The establishment of groups and group action takes place in several phases. In the initial phase a village meeting takes place in which everyone in the village as well as the literacy programme personnel, the science experts, the extension workers, etc. participate. The purpose of the meeting is to identify the knowledge of the villagers, particularly of the village elders and other village specialists, with respect to a specific topic (such as a particular disease) chosen in prior consultation with the village. In the next phase, the literate village youth are given the opportunity to learn from the science experts by engaging in discussions , carrying out experiments with appropriate science equipment, and so acquiring a scientific basis for understanding the disease. The village know-how is retained where it is appropriate. For example, the village terms for symptoms will be retained and also used by the scientists. Subsequent phases involve the dissemination of this scientific knowledge by the young people, further conflict-resolving discussions with the community as a whole, and further training sessions for the young people.

Venezuela also reports on an experimental programme with rural, urban, frontier, and indigenous communities, where the community families (called family groups) and others such as youth groups get together for their individual and collective welfare. The scheme, which is being developed by the Planning Office of the Ministry of Education, calls for the combined efforts of several other agencies as well. The identification of problems, the development and execution of plans, and the evaluation of the work are all done with the active involvement of all the groups concerned.

In the Himalayan Kingdom of *Nepal* it is estimated that more than 75 per cent of the farmers fall into the category of "small farmers" with holdings of less than one hectare of land and whose annual income does not exceed Rs 1,200 (about US $ 60) per head per annum. Since 1975 an action-based research project, called Small Farmers Development Project (SFDP), has been initiated by the Agriculture Development Bank to help increase their production activities in a planned way so that their standard of living can be improved. In order to realise this goal small farmers' groups are organised at the village level by the group organiser (GO) deputed by the Bank. At the next stage group plans are formulated and then income-raising and other social and community development programmes are implemented on a group basis. By 1984-85, a total of 4,554 groups (593 female) had been formed in 162 projects, with a total of 41,603 small farmers participating.

Under SFDP the farmers are provided with various types of financial, income-generating, agricultural and social and community services inputs in a package form. Loans are provided on the basis of group liability. Farmers are provided training in sanitation and awareness about the environment, and are involved in various projects for improving social services and community life including adult education and functional literacy, afforestation, drinking water, population education, food and nutrition, road construction and maintenance and related activities. In addition, the farmers are imparted trained in the skills of group dynamics, improved agricultural and livestock production techniques, public health, family planning, cottage and rural industries and bee-keeping. During the years 1975-1984, a total of 63,750 small farmers were involved in some kind of social and community development training and education and 24,326 were provided with some kind of skill training in at least a few areas of personal, social and economic development. This is a good example of continuing education.

The main objective is to raise the consciousness of small farmers by literacy education, skill training and social and community service activities, so that they will gradually be freed from ignorance, economic helplessness, and social injustice. The key processes are: functioning on a group liability basis, and improving through various education and training activities in a nonformal setting. Initially the small farmers are assisted in various income-raising agricultural and agrobased enterprises by the provision of loans and training in cereal and cash crop production, livestock and horticultural development, farm mechanisation, irrigation, cottage and rural industries, marketing of products, bee-keeping and sericulture, and production of medical plants. Training is also imparted in the skills of group concepts, crop production, health and sanitation and record keeping in addition to social and community development activities.

An example of a specific vocational training programme which responds to a national need at the same time that it offers opportunity for individual development is that conducted by the Ministry of Housing in Egypt through the Training Centres for the Building and Construction Industry. It is geared to school drop-outs and government workers who need retraining, aged 16 to 30.

This programme, while providing the country with a trained labour force for the building and construction industry, equips the participants with technical skills and theoretical studies in this area as well as with basic citizenship education through knowledge, experience, concepts and values.

This type of continuing education programme enables the learners to use their knowledge and skills to increase their income and to apply them to activities for community development.

Instruction is offered in several areas related to their vocation (construction, whitewashing, painting, carpentry, smithing, sanitary work, electrical installation, metallurgy and flagging) including the study of the tools and equipment, understanding of the materials used, knowledge of the technical terminology, units of measurement, measuring equipment and elementary geometry, and fieldwork. Special care is taken to reinforce the participants' literacy skills in reading, writing and arithmetic as well as in developing a scientific method of thinking, and interest in cultural, historical, social, religious and national issues. Special follow-up books for this programme have been prepared with the help of the Regional Centre for Adult Education ASFEC.

Participants pay no fees; on the contrary, they receive some incentives and benefits for joining the programme: a food allowance, a set of tools and equipment and a grant of 200 pounds. The duration of the training is six months (four in the centre and two in field work under the supervision of an accredited contractor). At the end of the course they must sit for an examination and present the certificate received from the contractor for field work in order to obtain the accreditation for having completed the course satisfactorily.

Most of the trainers are qualified with industrial secondary certificates or diplomas from higher technical institutes. Their work is supervised by a special department of the

Ministry of Housing (the Department of Training for Building and Construction), which is responsible for the programme.

Mode of Organisation and Action

The strength of a group often resides in its organisation. It is not intended to go into the debate on the relationship of cause and effect between these two components. The problem touched on here concerns the imaginative capacities and weaknesses of the totality of mechanisms employed by the groups studied in order to implement their actions and facilitate learning. What are the consultation procedures which have been agreed upon? Is there a set order of speakers in a discussion? And who decides? How are the decisions relayed? What are the mechanisms that have been elaborated to stamp out inertia and monotony and to avoid disruption and dispersion of the group? These are matters which cannot be elucidated in a satisfactory manner, due to the paucity of facts in the examples touched on.

All the groups studied are open in their structure and address their programmes to everyone, thereby assuming the function of transmitting and multiplying the advances they make to the whole community. Set up in 1973, *MOBRAL's Cultural Development Programme (Brazil)* aimed both at fulfilling the need to involve those who participate in the Foundation's pedagogic programmes, and the communities to which they belong, in a continuous learning process, and at helping to strengthen all the knowledge acquired by the learners through providing them with conditions for the discovery of new ways of applying it. While the activities, as a rule, started from operational units, that is, from the Foundation's Mobraltecas and Minimobraltecas, Posts and Miniposts, they could also occur independently of these units as spontaneous efforts of local groups. In other words, the local cultural circles incorporated external cultural actions and were open not only to their members but to anyone wishing to join. In *India*, the *CS (Chetana Sangha)* are in essence organisational structures which are dedicated to development work destined for the whole of the surrounding community, thus very much beyond the limits of these groups themselves. The advanced training for the rural youth of *Mali* addresses itself through this age group to the whole of the village by means of discussions, both before and after the training sessions, on needs assessment and the sharing of the achievement. There also exists a consultative structure made up of the village elders, who have practically a monopoly of decision-making within Malian society. It is the interaction of these different groups within the village which ensures the legitimacy of the decisions and the participation in their implementation by the entire village.

MOBRAL's Cultural Development Programme (Brazil) was launched over the entire spread of the country and was intended to operate on a continuing education basis through mobile operational units geared to making cultural activities a reality. By passing through the various locations set out in its itinerary and attracting crowds, the Mobralteca aimed, among other things, to awaken interest in the development of permanent cultural activities, to mobilise the communities and make them aware of MOBRAL's entire frame of operation.

The Mobraltecas operated in regions under regional coordination centres. They offered and supported a diversified gamut of activities in the various areas of culture, namely literature; games and sports; publications; music; theatre; films and television; the artistic, cultural and ecological heritage; sculpture and modelling; handicrafts, folklore and radio. The Minimobraltecas came about as a result of the need to spread the activities throughout the countryside by means of smaller units.

Set up as cultural centres in 1973, Mobral Posts were meant as permanent operational units from which work situations should emerge; they were redesigned eventually to become Continuing Education Agencies. A *Post* was both a meeting point and a means of support for the social, educational and cultural development of the community in its effort to promote, disseminate and preserve local culture.

The Minipost emerged spontaneously as a result of activities undertaken by the community itself; it used its own resources and materials borrowed from the Post on a rotating basis.

The attempt in *Venezuela* is in the context of other non-formal educational projects (23 in all), the adequate implementation of which requires the type of group formation and action described earlier.

The Educational Context

Whatever the forms taken, the strategy examined aims at breathing life into learning by benefiting from the dynamic force and team spirit which are latent in any group, whether it is organised or not. To this general objective other more specific ones may be added, e.g. the use of leisure activities within the Brazilian cultural programmes in order to tap their creative potential through individual or collective activities, or the recourse to discussion groups and other activities in order to highlight the aspirations and expectations of members and record their options and priorities with regard to the choice of solutions, as in *India* and *Venezuela*. The educational programmes set up are generally flexible and linked with an organisational and social practice. The tendency is to establish a permanent interaction between practice and reflection. The advanced training of rural youth in *Mali*, despite its experimental character, rests on the socio-pedagogical assumption that "the traditional youth associations, 'fertilised' by functional literacy and training, might become major channels of verification and propagation of the totality of innovations seen as absolutely essential to the development and sometimes even the survival of the villages". (31) The objective of the advanced training of neo-literates in Mali is the use of the qualitative support which might be constituted by a nucleus of literates in a village in order to change if not transform its existence. There are neither natural leaders nor an elite of the poor, but rather delegates who have received the mandate of the village to try out innovations at the grass-roots level.

As their name implies, the cultural circles of *Brazil* were a point of convergence for several learning strategies. The groups implemented the plan of action and tried to involve as many beneficiaries as possible in the sessions where tasks were programmed and distributed. The activities undertaken covered literature, sports and games, music, theatre, cinema, folklore, art, crafts, history, etc. To these should be added film showings and radio or television debates. The contents of the programme of appropriate technologies were communicated by means of comprehensive pamphlets in the series *Cada Cabeça é um Mundo* ... (To each his world).

In *Venezuela*, the programme is linked to the formal system in that it uses mostly the knowledge gained by former participants within this system, which they might, thanks to the programme, later rejoin. Its essential characteristic is nevertheless the promotion of leisure activities (excursions, arts, music, dance, crafts, sports) so as to obtain through self-development the participation of families and individuals in actions aimed at the resolution of community problems.

In *Mali*, the aims are, among others, to:

- help solve the major national problems in the fields of agriculture, livestock breeding, health, technology, etc. by providing concrete, village-level solutions with a scientific approach;

- explain to the trainees why things happen and teach them to look for causes and effects and verify them.

Thirty courses were held from 1977 to 1982 which dealt with the transmission of illness, with health, soil fertility, agriculture, farm implements and machines, techniques of listening to the radio, and repairing radio sets. The courses consisted of evening discussions and practical work, and they covered a selection of the traditional knowledge of the 'elders', who often act as the guardians of this knowledge.

6.2 Action Groups, Animation and Participation

Animation, participation and *community development* are the favourite terms found in all of the literature on development, especially in that related to the countries of the Third World. It is proposed, then, not to deal with these strategies (philosophies or conceptions) of development, but rather to examine the post-literacy learning programmes which draw on them. In this way, comments are restricted to considering the global approach offered by these conceptions, since the analyses which relate to them often give way to ideological debate. Sometimes it is the regulative, conformist character of these approaches which is incriminated, their subtlety supposedly saving the dominant ideologies the expense of a repressive mechanism, and sometimes it is their elitist character and their paternalistic and utilitarian platform which is denounced. These divergences are eclipsed by the fact that the primary objective is to start up and to take in hand a movement which will encourage people to get together and organise themselves to create, maintain, reinforce and qualitatively transform their economic, social and cultural life. It is, indeed, a trite observation that the individual is not simply a passive receptacle of his social milieu, but that he endeavours to mould his surroundings according to his personality and emerging needs.

Animation is an educational approach characterised essentially by the concern to make problems surface and cause them to be dealt with by the interested parties themselves. It consists of sweeping the ground, as it were, so that it is ready for developmental actions whose diffusion thereby proves easier. In other words, the individuals and groups in a locality are prepared for critical reflection, thus facilitating the diffusion of development action.

Participation seeks, prepares, and guarantees the adhesion of individuals to a project initiated by them or by others.

Whereas animation enables men and groups to discover or re-discover themselves, to express themselves fully, and to evaluate themselves in a critical manner, *community development* offers them a field of operation involving social interaction within the common space which it presupposes, and *participation* assures their commitment and their choice of action.

Some Experiences

In most of the French-speaking countries of Africa, especially *Burkina Faso*, *Côte d'Ivoire*, *Mali*, *Niger and Senegal*, the literacy - and particularly the post-literacy - programmes are based on animation as an educational method. In *Senegal*, for example, post-literacy for women is carried out mainly in the cultural and social centres, where the programmes are adapted to the domestic, horticultural, and maternal concerns of the women. These programmes are worked out by the Literacy Division in consultation and collaboration with the competent technical departments. The methodology of intervention is based on animation together with the use of appropriate group techniques combined with learning strategies such as radio and television, the newspaper, and reading and discussion circles often directed by specialists.

It may be safely assumed that community action impregnates and orientates the nature of post-literacy strategies in most of the countries touched upon, although only a few countries refer to them specifically.

While *Brazil* had programmes which explicitly referred to the formation of groups - these were described earlier - MOBRAL's work as a whole depended on the functioning of various groups at local community and municipal level. It was very significant that in launching a mass programme, MOBRAL thought that "experiences with small groups, which would take into account the interest of each community, would perhaps be the optimum solution". However, it was recognised that that would adversely affect *economies of scale*. Another reason for MOBRAL using "work in groups" was that it allowed "for the exploration of contents at the level of the learners' interest". (32)

Tanzania has an elaborate system of adult education committees from the national level to the level of the individual literacy centre, which reflects the transformation of its political will into a real practical structure. At the level of a literacy centre, two to ten literacy classes organise a committee for the planning and co-ordinating of their educational work. Each literacy class has a representative on such a committee. At the higher levels, such as the ward and the division, the adult education committee members include agricultural, rural, and health extension workers, party members, and other administrative personnel. This structure has been evolved in part to "mobilise popular participation of party and government leadership and obtain greater involvement of the people in planning and co-ordinating all adult education activities in the country..." . (33)

6.3 Post-Literacy Strategies Using the Traditional Media, Games and Sports Activities

In its broadest sense, post-literacy sets itself the objective not only of retention but, above all, of the continuation of learning and the application of knowledge to situations of daily life. There results from this broad approach a deliberate search for methods and situations which encourage learning. This search for alternative strategies and solutions that are easily and locally available has opened the way to the exploration and re-discovery of traditional forms of communication and to a new appreciation of the educational value of initiation games. The importance of not uprooting individuals from their culture and milieu by introducing new forms of relationship has led to the emergence of learning and communicative modes drawn from local culture. These approaches have the advantage of covering an extensive public while at the same time affecting it profoundly. Educationally, traditional media tend to play down, or even hide their learning content and methods, regardless of the manner in which they present them. This can be through tragedy or comedy, or a mixture of the two.

The capacity of these media to reflect local values, popular beliefs and attitudes, and patterns of behaviour confers on them a power of identification, familiarity, and legitimacy which makes them more credible channels of communication than the often impersonal modern media. However,

> *This folk media, too, is more communicative but [illegible] in the sense to understand it. It is not formalistic,*

> *instantaneous, one-way, and overpowering in its audio-visual impact. It does not depend much on hardware. It is two-way and inter-personal, an exchange of ideas and experience through a process in which the distinctions fade away between learner and teacher, audience and communicator, follower and leader, the backward and the advanced or developed. The two speak not from different levels but are on the same plane, engaged in a search for understanding or an agenda for action. It is more a combined exploration of ideas and experience, a joint venture rather than a studied effort of a hidden persuader. (21)'*

The traditional media also have the advantage of being able to reach areas which the mass media cannot, viz. those places where there is no electricity, where the majority of the population is illiterate, and where the languages spoken are not widely understood - a state of affairs which of course does not encourage the production of reading material or of other media support.

The Use of the Traditional Media and Cultural Activities

The popular communication media utilise a number of devices to ensure that the attitudes, values and beliefs of the people are taken fully into account. Many of them serve at the same time as entertainment for the population and as means of oral expression when their problems are presented through drama.

Popular entertainments (theatre, puppets, dances, sports etc.) have served as means of preserving tradition and of inculcating established values, playing in this way a key role in enabling the community to come to terms with new social and political situations. These are, then, both forms of collective expression and community activities. Theatre and puppet shows in particular can present issues closely linked to the problems and needs of the population and constitute a rich modality of popular self-expression.

There now exists abundant documentation on the role of the popular media and their use as major channels of communication for the sensitisation of communities at the grass-roots level and for the encouragement of these communities to change their attitudes towards certain innovations and contribute actively and on their own initiative to the search for original and attainable solutions. What is central to the use of the traditional media is the understanding of a given culture and its utilisation for the mobilisation of individuals for social action. There are as many and heterogeneous examples of folk communications as there are national and local communities in the different regions.

In *India*, a contribution to the programmes of continuing education for adult neo-literates is provided by the richness of the cultural heritage in general and by that of India's folklore in particular. These media have extremely varied forms and are also named differently across the country. We shall, however, only examine the *Roopayan Sansthan Borundha (RS)*, the one form described in the case study on India. The RS is an institution whose primary objective is the preservation and diffusion of the traditional cultural forms, but which, besides archival work on oral tradition and art objects, has also come to foster their use for the education of the public and above all for the education of neo-literates. The archives contain, among other items, hundreds of hours of recordings of songs, ballads, tales, legends, and proverbs.

A systematic selection is made to remove from these ancient artistic creations all retrogressive elements such as intolerance, segregation, and manipulation. A particular feature of these programmes is the recourse to creativity so as to give birth to new forms and topical contents. The RS has already published some twenty volumes of roughly 500 pages each, all of them devoted to the writings of *Vijaidan Detha*, the founder and guiding light of the movement.

The results of the work of the RS appear in adaptations which provide neo-literate reading material. The objective is to entertain learners while educating them through tales and anecdotes which they already know but in which they can now also recognise "a local bully, a corrupt politician, an unbending bureaucrat or a greedy moneylender. It creates consciousness among people without depressing them, and traces the source of their strength without seeming superior to them." (35)

Through the intermediary of its grass-roots operational cultural units, which have already been touched upon earlier in this chapter, MOBRAL (Brazil) encouraged and organised folk dances, singing and drama within the framework of its cultural programme sessions, with a view to preserving traditional cultural values and stimulating spontaneous and original ways of expressing these values. This approach resulted from the conviction that the local populations develop creative styles and modes of survival which should be made concrete in educational action and transformed into real potential so that the national development objectives could be realised. What we have here is a project directed more towards the conservation of an artistic heritage and the aesthetic education of individuals than to the use of the activities in question for the encouragement of systematic learning.

In *Egypt*, popular culture is regarded as the natural extension of the popular university and a means of lifelong education for all as well as a cultural and entertainment programme for adults and children throughout the country. Popular culture programmes are within the remit of the Ministry of Culture and are divided between three specialised centres:

(a) The Centre for Children's Culture

(b) The Centre for Rural Culture

(c) The Centre for Leadership Training

Programmes are organised in cultural palaces, which are widespread in the capitals of governorates and large Egyptian cities. There were 33 palaces and 38 cultural clubs in Egyptian villages in 1980.

Popular culture has employed the following learning strategies:

Public Libraries: These are widespread in cultural palaces and houses. Books on general subjects are available and it is easy for new readers to find books adapted to their level of education. The libraries open their doors to all with no restriction.

Service Classes: These classes aim at contributing to continuing education in a style similar to formal education, although the executive procedure differs. The classes are created in the cultural palaces and clubs and are open to the public without restriction.

Education in these classes combines vocational training and a liberal education, including foreign languages such as English, French, German, Italian and Hebrew, and knitting, sewing, embroidery, home economics, typing and shorthand, secretarial training, wireless and electronics, electricity, mechanics, photography, cinema photography, ceramics, carpet and rug crafts, music, drama, painting, sculpture and engraving.

Mobile Cultural Units: This is one of the main forms of popular culture, with a degree of popularity which facilitates its mission for adult education. The units are equipped with microphones and projectors, and they house libraries. The unit is usually accompanied by singers and musical troupes, and also offers puppet shows and folklore art exhibitions.(36)

In *Jamaica* there is an important activity carried out by theatre groups called *Drama for Progress* involving (on a voluntary basis) roving actors recruited from literature courses and clubs in secondary schools.

The Aymara Reananta' Theatre in Bolivia, which encourages the active participation of the audience, constitutes another, and perhaps the best, example of combining the media for this purpose, with preference being given to the folk media. Each month a *campesino* community is selected and an educational fair is organised and co-ordinated with the leaders. Through radio publicity in their own language (Aymara) members of that community and of neighbouring communities are invited to participate in the fair. On the day when it is held (usually on Sundays or holidays), various types of popular activity such as dancing and Aymara drama, band contests, inter-community sports competitions, agricultural shows, simulation games, etc. are presented with demonstrations and displays, electronic media (films, audio- and video-cassette recordings) and with the exhibition and sale of handicrafts, agricultural products and livestock. These programmes take advantage of the fairs in order to present their achievements, to motivate the *campesinos* to participate in other activities planned for the future and to give feedback about their own activities. SENALEP (Servicio Nacional de Alfabetización y Educación Popular) has introduced important innovations in this way, using the occasion of traditional fairs to promote government educational and health programmes and the practice of folk medicine.

The *Macac* project in *Ecuador*, sponsored by the Ministry of Education of Ecuador and the Catholic University of Quito is geared to literacy and the initial education of the Quichua population. It has not only given special importance to the participation of the indigenous population but also to the presentation of their cultural heritage and ancestral wisdom. Making sure that the witch doctors of the indigenous people were present amongst those involved has made clear the intention not to exclude but to revalue traditional medicine. (37)

The Use of Games and Sports

Formal school and traditional pedagogy have long been aware of the value of games and sport for breaking the monotony of classes and educational methods, and for enhancing children's motivation. The post-literacy programmes, perhaps because of the exclusive importance they have accorded adults, have only lately begun to make use of games for educational purposes. This use takes two forms. The first consists in reviving the group games which are already dedicated to education and initiation, be these of children, young people, adults. Here new functions are emerging. The second form consists in the creation of new games, either by grafting games on to local models, or by adapting foreign forms to the local context.

Niger has worked out a series of five games developed from three traditional forms widespread in that country and from two European group games adapted to the context of Niger. These are all collective games. They are led by the instructor of the literacy centre and relate to the composition of phrases, the consolidation of reading, and the reinforcement of reflection and clear reasoning. (38)

In *Brazil*, games, sports, and physical education, although conceived in an educational perspective for the consolidation of skills were made use of in the same manner as the cultural and folk activities, i.e. essentially to create a certain atmosphere and to preserve a heritage from disappearing. With regard to physical education, there was co-ordination with the above-mentioned community programme of appropriate technologies, which includes the preparation and assembly of materials, parts, and equipment used in sports, games, and other physical activities.

The *Fundación Colombiana Nuestra* (Our Columbian Foundation) has developed an inspiring methodology with the indigenous Pãez Communities of Valle del Cauca, by which they rediscover and reconstruct their historical past. Scenes from everyday life in former or contemporary times are portrayed together with significant events on charts. The programme is called *Talking Maps*.

The *Alforja* group, in *Costa Rica*, has recently published an excellent graphic summary with nearly a hundred games and simulations in which the adults perform and share multiple roles drawn from real-life situations.

Cuba has conceived as an integral part of its cultural and educational development a subsystem of physical, sports and recreational education. The primary objective of the programming of such activities is the search for a harmonious development of man's full potential. It means recognition of the positive influence which physical education, sport and leisure can have on the constitution of the character and personality of the new generations. In the Cuban programme, sports activities are undertaken in the framework of a physical education which is called upon to complement mental education, general education, aesthetic and moral education, vocational education, etc.

The use of the traditional media and of games, sports and other cultural activities for post-literacy raises many questions which have remained unanswered, either because of the unavailability of factual information, or because of the interpretation of the facts. It has not always been easy to distinguish between their role as a means and their status as an end. With regard to the traditional media, for example, the fundamental question which was unanimously raised by the participants in the training seminar held at Nairobi and which was also mentioned in the case study from India, was: Should literacy and post-literacy programmes be seen as adding to the existing forms of learning, or as a substitute for them? *India* has responded to this question by introducing programmes of music, dance and theatre into the literacy centres, by making use of puppets, by introducing writing in the decorative forms, and by providing reading material whose content is drawn from the folk media. The controversy over the educational component of these strategies continues especially when they are evaluated in terms of knowledge and application to writing, reading and arithmetic. The descriptions given do not provide sufficient indications on how to explore the cognitive and psychomotor domains of literacy learning through the intermediary of the traditional media and games activities.

The possibilities offered by these activities have been unanimously recognised in the course of the various discussions which have taken place on the subject. These strategies attach equal importance to the content of their message and to the form most suitable for reaching the hearts and minds of their target public. While establishing interpersonal contact they are able, if necessary, to deliver their message in an impersonal fashion. Thus they play a leading role in the sensitisation for the programmes since they help those who are hesitating to see clearly or encourage them to make intelligent and informed decisions. They constitute major channels for the *re-socialisation* of individuals because they help these to read and to interpret reality, albeit within a range of limited contrasts. They also possess the capacity to adapt to the taste and mood of the recipient, whose immediate reaction they evoke. The flexibility of the activities described above allows them to evolve through discussion, improvisation, and the accessibility of the language used.

7. LEARNING STRATEGIES ESTABLISHING LINKS WITH THE FORMAL EDUCATION SYSTEM

Although post-literacy in certain countries does not reflect the ideal of a continuum of lifelong education which underlies the concept of the present project, it assumes nonetheless a broad character of overlapping systems of formal, nonformal, and informal learning. The educational programmes, including literacy and post-literacy, as administered in formal and nonformal systems or merely by means of informal arrangements, have been either totally or partially brought into harmony with each other so as to allow the unrestricted passage from one structure to another.

Certain cases appear to show identical contents and to be governed by a single national standard. They differ only in their methods, their calendar arrangements, disciplinary demands, and the role assigned to a teacher. Elsewhere, the contents are aimed at specific groups, determined by age, occupation, sex, etc., for which equivalences have been established. In both cases there is active interaction between the various forms of learning which constitute the whole of the educational system. Given the rigidity of the formal system and the general tendency to limit *education* solely to what is received inside this system, the broader strategies of post-literacy have also been called *Opening up the formal system*, *Second chance education*, etc. Some of these programmes are of vocational type most of them are academically oriented.

7.1 Vocationally Oriented Out-of-School Programmes

In *Brazil*, there were essentially two types of out-of-school programmes which paralleled those in the school system, although all of the former aimed at providing a more far-reaching education than that with which the young and adult neo-literates and children who have left school prematurely would have been equipped. The first type of programme encouraged continued learning, offered remedial courses, and attempted to improve the initial educational level of the learner. Such programmes were based on academic subjects and general knowledge. The second type of programme aimed at improving the situation of the individual in the labour market by providing technical training and inculcating skills which were likely to increase the learner's qualifications and his work performance. In the following, we will be referring primarily to various forms of this second kind of programme, even if some have already been dealt with in the preceding chapter because of other elements which characterise them.

(1) *The Integrated Education Programme (PEI)*

This Programme, which was part of MOBRAL's Supplementary Education Programme, took as its starting point studies of topics connected with the basic requirements of mankind, and there was no pre-established sequence of approach. The study of each topic, centring on the interests and needs of the group, was undertaken by examining together a poster and a text designed to inspire action. The resultant activities took the form of group work with an interchange of experience, active participation by all, discussion and a search for solutions to problems arising from the respective activities.

Implementation of the Programme was the responsibility of the State and Municipal Boards of Education. Under agreements with MOBRAL, that foundation supplied the teaching materials and trained the teachers. It was the responsibility of the Boards of Education to provide the necessary human resources and material supplies, as well as the facilities for running the classes and organising the Programme.

Teachers for the Programme were originally trained in two separate stages, the strategy being to use a multiplier effect. In the first stage, the Central MOBRAL team trained the teachers representing each municipality, while in the second, these teachers trained the entire teaching body. After that time (1971), training activities were carried out by the Central MOBRAL team (through the State and Territorial Coordination Offices or the Overall Supervision Subsystem), and by the Boards of Education. The teaching materials and guidelines drawn up by MOBRAL constituted the basic resources for training activities.

In 1973, the Federal Board of Education recognised the Programme as equivalent to the first four grades of elementary education. This ensured that evaluation formed a part of the process and that course conclusion certificates were issued by the Boards of Education. MOBRAL was separately authorised to enter into agreements with private schools that may issue certificates of schooling achievement, so long as they had been duly recognised by the State or municipal agencies in the sector concerned. MOBRAL was at the same time authorised to issue the certificates - which were valid all over Brazil - without reference to the Boards of Education.

Since 1973, the Boards of Education have been entitled to distribute a minimum study schedule of 720 hours, by stages, and the respective Programmes may last ten to eighteen months. However, in view of the flexibility of this Programme, certain students may attain the objectives after, say 400, 500, or 600 hours work, whereas others may require over 720 hours, and must then enrol again.

(2) *The Self-Education Programme (PAD)*

This was conceived on two principles:

- the individual learns how to acquire information and thus how to develop by drawing upon his own resources;
- one only really learns what one has discovered for oneself.

The Programme's objective was therefore to offer those conditions best suited to enable the learner to be the agent of this own education.

According to its objectives, the Programme was especially designed for rural areas. Priority for enrolment was given to literacy teachers, graduates of functional literacy courses, teachers in general, and pupils of the programme of integrated education. Certain characteristics of the PAD merit special emphasis:

- Subjects for study were submitted by the learners themselves, who not only determined the order but also the rate of study and the time to be devoted to any subject. Every student was free to join and leave the Programme at will.
- Each theme undertaken was the subject of a series of study texts and practical complementary activities.
- In conjunction with each cultural appointment, there was a counsellor whose duty it was to orientate, to evaluate, and to ensure the continuity of the participants' study.

(3) *The Vocational Training Programme*

Since its very inception, MOBRAL had, however unsystematically, been active in the vocational field by means of local training activities developed at the municipality level. For that purpose an agreement was signed with the Intensive Programme for Labour Training (PIPMO) and a special management cell was created

(GEPRO). As part of its decision to develop a more programmed involvement in the vocational field, MOBRAL then adopted a classic professional training model already employed by entities active in labour training, combining the following complementary components:

- The Vocational Guidance Subprogramme

- The Vocational Training Subprogramme

- The Labour Placement Subprogramme

Other elements basic to MOBRAL's regular endeavours have been fitted into this model: decentralising implementation and centralising control and monitoring; utilising available community resources; searching for an 'economy of scale' through the use of a single action strategy for the entire country and involvement with public and private entities committed to this field of work. The Vocational Training Programme aimed at satisfying the country's labour requirements by providing two kinds of training.

The first involved a scheme adapted to blocks of related occupations. Thirteen key occupational groups were established with the purpose of training as many semi-skilled workers as possible as cheaply as possible. A basic technical training common to a block of occupations was assured by giving the trainee specific tasks which would prepare him for a later specialisation.

The second kind of training involved more specifically designated occupations. The primary sector could then be divided into twenty-seven categories, the secondary into five, and the tertiary into ten. The training consisted of a series of theoretical and practical courses and activities dealing solely with the trade being taught and containing extracurricular activities.

The programme enjoyed the full use of facilities provided for it by the community. Thus small local farms were made available to accommodate the courses of the primary sector. Similarly, trainees in the secondary sector were admitted into factories and vocational training centres.

> There was no formal written examination at the end of a course. Those participants who had completed 70% of their allotted work hours and had convinced their teacher/counsellor that they possessed a sufficient command of the skills being taught, were awarded a certificate. (39)

In *Indonesia* the formal and nonformal systems are autonomous but complementary programmes. Those who wish to transfer from one to the other have to sit for an examination in additional subjects.

The *National Programme of Learning (NPL)* as developed by the *National Institute of Educational Cooperation (INCE)* in *Venezuela* is an example of a programme which establishes an equivalence between out-of school learning of an essentially practical nature, and formal education. Apprentices can obtain credit for previous knowledge before they enter the general programme, and their particular programmes are modified accordingly. Since May 1980, according to the Presidential Decree No. 604, the apprentices who complete their studies in the NPL are regarded as having acquired the equivalent of studies performed in the *Basic Cycle* (primary and secondary stages of the first cycle).

It has been mentioned elsewhere that in the same way students are allowed to transfer from the formal system to the nonformal community programme, *Social organizations and individual self-development*, which constitutes a part of the project, *Innovation in nonformal education*.

7.2 Academically-Oriented Out-of-School Programmes Parallel to the Formal System

Since 1981 the Family Subsidy Fun (CAFAM) in *Colombia* has developed its *Continuing Education Programme* for workers, employees and adults in general who desire to attain a higher and better level of education. (40)

It was established in response to the problems of illiteracy and low educational levels and the social need to integrate people into national life through a type of education which would prepare them for participation.

The CAFAM Continuing Education Programme approaches adult education from a humanistic point of view. Success is measured by the returns provided by the human development of individuals and groups, the indicators of which are: increased knowledge and cognitive skills, individual awareness of human dignity, awareness of responsibilities towards oneself, family, work and community. In this way a person will be able to integrate himself into his environment in a responsible manner. In short, the Programme attempts to provide the adult with a type of education which will make him responsible and able to participate in his own cognitive, psychological and social development.

The first priority is to integrate the less well educated, that is, those individuals who have had incomplete or no schooling, into the educational stream, in a lifelong process. A second priority concerns those persons with basic education who need to update or refresh their knowledge in order to go on to higher levels of education, to satisfy a particular interest or to improve their performance in any particular situation in life.

The CAFAM Programme makes the adult a participant in his own progress by stressing an open and flexible approach. Its objective is to make him more capable and develop his cognitive educational process. The assumption is that if the adult is given the opportunity of developing himself, of acquiring new knowledge, of experiencing organised and reflective thinking, he will become a very powerful force in changing the human group and society in general.

Features of the Programme

An attractive aspect of the Programme is its flexibility in both its management and curriculum. The latter is attributable to the modular system and the self-learning approach.

The self-learning aspect applies particularly to the participant's ability to manage his time, rather than having it managed for him, through the following options:

- the student decides his own pace of learning. He advances in the study of the modules according to the time available, his capacity, previous experience and motivation;

- he can interrupt his study and return later to the same subject;
- he takes the evaluation test when he considers that he has acquired a good command of the topic in question. In other words the stress that is produced by the demand of reaching goals in a definite period of time has been eliminated or has disappeared. The participant thus acquires more responsibility and self-confidence, all of which leads to successful learning and evaluation.

Although the different learning strategies are organised, the adult has the option of selecting any of them according to his particular situation - study in small groups, tutoring or independent study. There is no fixed group which follows the learning process or the evaluation periods. Each individual decides the pace of his own promotion or the time of the evaluation test, although he works basically in a small group.

The Programme offers him a set of knowledge organised methodically. The participant decides the number of skills which he wishes to acquire at one time. If he has no difficulties, he sits the evaluation test. If he has encountered difficulties he has the following options: he can consult the study group which is working on the same subject, he can consult the group monitor and, in the last resort, the evaluator. This organisation is very useful to the participant. If for any reason he has to withdraw temporarily from the Programme, his learning does not suffer the usual setbacks which result when there is a change of teacher or colleagues. The participant knows that the constant reference point is the relevant study module.

The academic standard is set by the administration according to the philosophical and curricular principles of the Programme. The participant should attain 100 success and he receives the pedagogical support to meet this standard.

It has been considered that a lower academic achievement would encourage easy promotion but also the acquisition of a poor level of learning which would finally result in an accumulation of deficiencies which would hinder success at more advanced levels of study.

General Structure

The general structure of the CAFAM Continuing Education Programme is based on the concept of lifelong education whereby a person never terminates his education but continues to make constant progress throughout his life cycle. The process includes new knowledge, new skills in any area which concern the dignity of the human being and which will open up his understanding of the different aspects of life and broaden his horizon towards future opportunities. At present the Programme comprises three major learning stages; 1) the development of basic skills; 2) basic primary education; 3) basic secondary education.

First stage: this stage is geared to the learning of reading and writing skills. It is divided into four sequential components: competency A, competency B, competency C and competency D.

Second stage: this stage offers study in four areas - Spanish, mathematics, social studies, and natural sciences and health. Each area is divided into six competencies and each competency uses several instruction modules. During this stage the participant simultaneously takes two study areas (mathematics and Spanish) and on concluding these, he goes on to the other two (social studies and natural sciences and health). Once the four study areas have been finished, the participant receives the Certificate of Basic Education approved by the Ministry of Education and can then enrol in the following stage.

Third stage: the general objective of this stage is to prepare the participant to sit the examination equivalent to the 9th grade of the competent State institution (Colombian Institute for the Development of Higher Education - ICFES). This stage is organised in three phases: 1) study of basic structures of Spanish and mathematics; 2) study of available resources for self-learning and 3) study of texts.

At present a fourth stage of development is planned. It will be carried out in the following three different areas: 1) academic interest; 2) human and social development; 3) the modernisation of enterprises affiliated to CAFAM. The Programme will thus cover all the stages constituting the different educaeducational levels and it will be a parallel to the formal educational system.

Characteristics of the structure

Each stage is organised in competencies, which are independent learning units with short-term goals. The instructional material of a competency is the module. Each area comprises various competencies.

These stages and competencies do not correspond to the levels and grades of the traditional formal system as regards the content, structure, strategies, objectives and administration. In particular, they are not bound to time and classroom organisation, which characterise traditional schooling.

The organisation of the Programme is both flexible and structured. In relation to the participant, the modular approach offers him at any time only one or two attainable short-term goals; once these are accomplished, the participant may go on or return later and proceed to more advanced ones.

As regards the sequence of topics, new modules may be introduced if there is a need of new skills or information; or any of the modules can be postponed if the level of difficulty for a specific regional group so demands. All this is what is meant by an open and flexible structure.

At the same time the goals become part of a broad structure which allows the participant to continue to higher levels of knowledge if he so wishes. This is the structured aspect of the Programme which seeks continuity in the learning process and coordination with subsequent stages of academic development. It also integrates with the final stage of the different levels of the formal system because it allows the participant of the CAFAM Programme to reach common academic goals with students of that system. This constitutes a vertical form of integration.

On the other hand, the content also comprises life situations and life values, both of which are developed according to the characteristics of a specific human group involved in the process, and of particular socio-political situations which arise during the process. This aspect demonstrates that the Programme is integrated horizontally with the current events of life.

As the learner advances to higher levels of knowledge in the structure, the goals come closer to the requirements for an official recognition of professional or academic studies. Thus studies at the last stage acquire equivalency with the basic and advanced levels of secondary school education by means of a State examination. This equivalency is carried out in terms of accomplished learning goals rather than identification with the structure and approach of the formal system. The fact that students of both the formal system and the Continuing Education Programme take the same State examination to obtain the same certificate is an indicator of the high academic standard that the Continuing Education Programme achieves. The latter scheme is therefore not a second class education, since its participants can compete with those of the formal system under the same academic standards of the State examination.

On the other hand, far from offering emergency or remedial studies, the structure of the Continuing Education Programme induces the adult to see education as a source of personal growth and encourages him to view it as a lifelong process.

Learning Strategies and Supports

In consonance with humanistic, philosophical principles and the curricular approach which is open, flexible and deschooled, the strategies selected are centred on learning, rather than teaching. Thus the important task is to foster the conditions which favour self-learning, learning in small groups, self-evaluation and evaluation with the evaluator.

The learning conditions are created through learning strategies. These strategies are related to the organisation of the content, the methodology of the module, the role of the participant in his learning process, the role of the coordinator and monitors in the study sessions and the different activities for conducting learning within areas of both cognitive development and value formation. The psychological and academic support given to the participant and the entire affective atmosphere during the study process are important in this respect.

Learning support

The learning support within the CAFAM Continuing Education Programme is provided by materials, study sessions and complementary activities.

The materials consist of booklets and modules, audio-visual aids such as video-cassettes, illustrated series and other printed materials such as study guides and leaflets. The study sessions include various supports such as group monitoring individual tutor aid and evaluator's assistance.

All the above learning strategies are supported by a series of emotional elements (self-esteem and human values) which are expressed in small inter-action groups, through the institutional environment, academic and psychological supports provided by the Programme's coordinators and evaluators, lectures, audio-visual campaigns and informal and institutionalised communication through a communications committee composed of the participants and which deliberates in the General Assembly of the Programme.

Booklets. They have been prepared for the first learning stage corresponding to the development of reading and writing skills. They complement a didactic game designed to introduce the participant to these two areas. The booklets, like the modules, are a step in a logical sequence, extending from concrete referents to abstract concepts, from simple to complex knowledge. Five booklets have been developed for the stage, three for reading and writing skills and two for elementary mathematical concepts.

Modules. Curricular contents have been developed in one hundred instruction modules, the topics of which are set forth in a pedagogical sequence and take account of the worker's needs, his family, work and community.

The modules system allows the participant to join the Programme in the topic which he needs to learn or review. Thus the Programme provides an individual response, identifies previous learning and eliminates massive teaching. Each adult studies the topic which he requires, develops the needed skills and advances at his own pace. He starts from known elements in order to arrive at unknown topics.

On the basis of concrete references he may form abstractions. With the aid of illustrative examples, he learns how to formulate generalisations, that is, he sets off from what is simple and moves towards what is complex; he goes from concrete to abstract, from practical to theoretical.

The type of exercise used develops various mental skills such as retention, association, discrimination, interpretation, analysis, synthesis, judgement, which are some of the basic mental operations of the thinking process and of the expression of logical and reflective thought.

The modules corresponding to basic skills in Spanish and mathematics maintain a logical sequence and grading of difficulty. Each module is a prerequisite for another of a higher level. The system allows for the creation and use of additional materials between one module and another.

In the modules corresponding to natural science and social studies, this flexibility as regards sequence is even greater. The topics can be studied independently of one another. According to the various interests of the specific population groups, they may be omitted, combined or modified without impairing the structure. Furthermore, this flexibility allows for a permanent recycling of contents which in the scientific field are subject to many changes at the present time.

The modules have been developed by specialists in the respective subjects. The specialised teachers appointed are officials of the CAFAM School, who are paid an additional remuneration in accordance with the work performed on an occasional basis.

After the specialised teachers have prepared the modules, the latter are reviewed by the coordinator for the purpose of verifying their methodological development and language level. If the modules show errors, they are returned to their authors for correction or sent to another person, as the case may be.

When the modules meet all the requirements, they are transmitted to the Diagram and Typing Office for the preparation of the final design. The final design constitutes the original document, typed and illustrated, ready for printing.

The instruction modules contain the necessary information organised by tasks, test exercises for each task and answers to the exercises. Likewise, each module contains its self-evaluation test and an answer section, all of which enables the participant to measure his accomplishments and sit the evaluation test for promotion whenever he feels ready. Learning feedback thus becomes a lifelong reality which also develops responsibility in the adult for her/his own learning process.

The modules have been developed for both basic primary and secondary levels.

A module conforms to the following characteristics: a) it is a unit of independent content which at the same time is part of a broader structure; b) it develops only one topic; c) it provides sufficient learning; d) its contents are arranged according to levels of difficulty; 3) it is short in order to permit immediate promotion; f) it provides the means for self-correction, i.e. it offers answers to exercises; g) it generates thought and analysis.

Academic standards are ensured by consultation with specialists. Each module is adapted to the reader's level. Its organisation ensures coherence between the contents of former and subsequent learnings, the internal sequence of contents and respective grading, in accordance with an established order of difficulty. Topics are always significant for adults.

As regards language, vocabulary and grammar level receive due attention. Simple and ordinary words are generally used; however, expressions which are less usual are employed in order to attain greater clarity and accuracy. Preference is given to short, simple sentences. As modules develop into more advanced learnings, the language level rises and the structure of sentences becomes more complex while still ensuring a thorough understanding of the text.

The technical and graphic aspects take into account recommendations by technicians in the graphic arts. Modules are therefore magazine-sized in order to ensure easy reading and transportation; diagrams aid the reading and writing of exercises without the need for additional booklets; the type setting and paper used are designed to avoid fatigue; illustrations and figures are abundant and offer clarification of the written message; the cover is attractive, with a different illustration for each module. In order to reduce costs, a single colour ink is used in the texts.

Every module, except those for reading, contains three different parts: a guide booklet, a work booklet and a self-evaluation test. The guide booklet constitutes the first part of the module and basically contains information and answers. It comprises an introduction, general objectives, motivation and tasks or sub-topics.

The introduction contains a presentation of the module. General objectives are described in terms of accomplishments, i.e. the results expected through the study of the module. The motivation section explains the usefulness of the module for the participant. The tasks are marked in capital letters (A, B, C... etc.) and constitute the sub-topics into which the general topic of the module may be divided. Each task has its own title, its specific objectives, with the information being presented by means of examples, concrete cases and illustrations. After each task, answers to the exercises are provided.

The work booklet constitutes the second part of the module and contains various exercises for each task. These exercises seek to reinforce learning of the content of each task by different methods: application of knowledge, recalling of concepts, formulation of generalisations, transfer of learning, solution to problems, analysis of situations, etc. Since modules offer self-correction, the participant will be able to evaluate the quality of his answer to each exercise by using the answer sheet.

Likewise, each module includes a self-evaluation test with its corresponding answer sheet. The self-evaluation test must be completed when the module is finished; its purpose is to indicate whether or not a student is ready to study the following module in the same topic or to participate in a promotion evaluation to a more advanced topic. Answers appearing in the module seek to structure the responsibility of the participant as the builder of his own learning process.

Television aids (video-cassettes). CAFAM's Department of Education is equipped with a closed circuit television system enabling it to project films on various topics.

Illustrated materials. These include illustrated series, posters and leaflets, the basic objective of which is to draw the attention of participants to specific topics of a psychological, affective or ethical nature which they wish to review.

The illustrated series develop a given subject on a sequential basis. The series includes full colour plates measuring 50 x 70 cm. and short messages on the respective topics. The plates are made of durable paper, painted in water colours and covered with transparent adhesive paper for protection.

Posters are designed to give information on particular topics such as peace, hygiene or the fight against drugs, and to publicise the Programme itself.

Leaflets set forth information in an attractive manner, using drawings and short, eye-catching texts. To date three leaflets have been produced: "Honesty", "Perseverance" and "Parents' negative behaviour towards their children".

Other printed material. In addition to the above, study and discussion guides have been prepared with different objectives. Texts and readings in addition to the modules demand some guidance if they are to be reviewed successfully. Therefore study guides include questions allowing the student to:

- read the texts in an organised manner;

- analyse the facts presented in the texts;

- reach his own conclusions;

- prepare a summary of the text.

The material includes guides to discussion and reflection with a view to reinforcing the development of moral values.

The use of media is supplemented by *study sessions*, during which the participant is given the opportunity to carry out several learning activities such as: participating in the study groups of his respective competency, requesting individual help from a tutor or evaluator and participating in complementary activities, in the form of campaigns dealing with various topics.

Both [illegible] and [illegible] have established two parallel systems of formal education. The one is intended for children and young people, the other for adult men and women from different occupations and with various responsibilities within the community. This form of education, to which the individual's access is conditional on his having completed the first phase of literacy, is referred to in China as *spare-time-school* and as *complementary education* in Vietnam.

Adhering to the "walking-on-two-legs" policy, i.e. developing the educational system by setting up schools run both by the state and by the masses, *China* adapted the "running school" system in a variety of forms in order to develop literacy, post-literacy and continuing education. The popular form adopted is *spare-time study*, establishing a system whereby education is given to people who are partly or wholly released from work or who attend classes on fixed or flexibly arranged dates and times. The system set up is like a six-floor building resting on spare-time literacy and technical primary-level schools and culminating with national secondary and higher open broadcast and television schools and universities. The intermediary floors are occupied by spare-time literacy and technical middle-level schools; secondary professional schools; full-time, part-time and spare-time universities and colleges; and correspondence education and night universities. In order to consolidate the foundations of this building and to instance a continuing learning process, a set of measures have been adopted throughout the country to stabilise and reinforce newly-acquired literacy skills. They include the following:

- sensitising the population with the spirit of continuing learning;
- adapting learning forms to individual and local conditions. The forms tried out include study groups; spare-time study groups; guided self-study; use of leisure time for group reading; broadcast classes and family study groups;
- unfolding the teaching activities of the *"four enhancements and four improvements"* by compiling new teaching materials with fresh content, etc.;
- launching the movement of "*a hundred, a thousand and ten thousand*" reading and writing activities on a large scale; that is reading a hundred articles, writing a thousand sentences and copying ten thousand characters;
- integrating learning with practice and learning while practising the occupations.

The spare-time classes of different kinds and levels are attended by a complete range of the educationally disadvantaged including peasants, workers, work drop-outs from primary schools, young people and cadres, middle-aged persons, etc.; they are run by departments and affiliated organisations, enterprises, trade unions, etc.; they take place at provincial, prefectural and county levels, organised by communes and brigades. They include a comprehensive system of *Night Schools run by Day Schools*.

In order to encourage the qualifications of adequate numbers of personnel for the four modernisations, Higher Educational Directory Commissions of Examinations for Self-Taught People have been set up at state, provincial, municipality and autonomous regional levels. If self-taught people give sufficient evidence of their suitability by passing the relevant examinations sponsored by the Higher Educational Directory Commissions for Examinations and the colleges and universities appointed by the Commissions, the State recognises their academic achievements and their experience at work and their salaries are adjusted accordingly. (41)

In *Vietnam*, post-literacy is pursued in the form of *complementary education* structured in three phases or cycles. The elementary cycle is short and intensive. It aims at providing initial literacy and the equivalent of the primary school. The second and third cycles correspond to the first and second grades in secondary education. Their duration is determined by the age, occupation and initial educational level of the respective group. On the fringe of this general scheme are full-time residential courses or one- or two-semester remedial education courses for young soldiers and model workers and peasants. The system of complementary education provides instrumental knowledge and organises dialogues/lectures and cultural and educational activities. It employs a variety of post-literacy strategies such as newspapers, extension material, radio, libraries, and study groups. (42)

The *Cuban* educational system is conceived of as a whole and offers several points of entry. It is characterised by a mass orientation governed by the desire to provide an essential educational minimum to the whole of the population. At the outset, this basic educational level was equivalent to primary education, but now it has reached the ninth grade level. This evolution has been effected through campaigns carrying such slogans as: *The Battle for the Sixth Grade* and *The Battle for the Ninth Grade*. Thus from the formal system onward there are specified national norms, which are attained through various channels open to young people, industrial workers, peasants, etc. Sometimes this takes the form of regular and frequent lessons (4 times a week, 3 and a 1/4 hours per day for adults), while in other instances there are courses of both duration with lessons once a week for 8 hours at a time. The latter offer blocks of subjects of a limited nature which are, however, very closely examined. All these types of educational development are plotted out in the socio-vocational structures aligned with the formal system. This is the case, for example, in the Junior Secondary Schools for Adults and the Higher Secondary Education for Adults. Radio and Television broadcast extensively to schools. Their widespread application might run the whole length of a programme (e.g. *La Batalla del Sexto Grado*, *La Batalla del Noveno Grado*), or they might contribute merely one of its component parts, as is the case with the televised broadcasts *Matemática Recreativa* and *Radio Pedagogía*.

Following an old tradition, the Kuttab, *Egypt* has developed a strategy for broadening the opportunity of acquiring literacy and further education for school age children who cannot enrol in a formal school because there is no school in the area they live, for drop-outs who never completed the primary stage and for people in general who have relapsed into illiteracy. This strategy is the one-class school, which is open three hours daily, five days a week. It functions in mosques, formal school buildings or in huts all around the country, especially in areas where no school exists, in sparsely populated regions or in places where schools do not have enough capacity for all school age children in the vicinity.

The one-class school is conceived as an alternative to the formal system for children aged 6 to 8 who have no access to school, and as a second chance for those who dropped out from school and want to continue their education, developing their knowledge and basic skills as well as their culture in such a way that they are enabled to contribute better to community activities. Although no specific syllabus or books have been prepared for the one-class schools, their curriculum includes religious education, learning the Koran, Arabic language, arithmetic, social studies, science and health along with vocational training. Frequent use is made of the books available for the primary stage of the formal system education.

Channels opened between the formal and nonformal systems allow students of the one-class school to transfer to the formal primary school once they have accomplished the requirements of a specific level and passed the exams of second or fourth grades. The primary level can be achieved in three years and a certificate is awarded to the learners, who may sit for the primary certificate exam.

Learners attending the one-class school are classified into groups according to the results of an oral and written test which determines the level to which they should be assigned. The first level group is composed of full illiterates. They are supposed to achieve a level equal to the second primary grade. The second level group includes pupils who have acquired the basis skills of reading and writing but dropped out early from school. They should reach a level equivalent to that of the fourth grade of primary education. The third level comprises students who are able to read and write well and solve arithmetic problems. In general, they dropped out from school at the fourth grade and want to achieve now a level equivalent to the sixth grade.

Usually different groups work in the same classroom and the teachers divide the work among them. Each group is assigned an objective which must be attained within a specific period of time. The curriculum is flexible. It allows adaptations to the level of the learners and the level of the teachers. It takes into consideration the local environment and the learners' concerns in religious, national and social matters. The duration of learning and the learning period are defined according to the convenience of the students. No fees are charged to them.

Not all teachers in these schools have had initial teacher training. Some are Koran memorisers, imams in mosques or public or civil servants. They require special training to provide individual attention, classify the students into groups and follow their progress in learning. Supervision of the one-class schools is the responsibility of the governorates. A department head is appointed to do the work, or it is assigned to adult education or special advisers. One-class schools are usually related to a "mother" formal school under whose guidance they are managed.

Kuwait has developed a system of education for adults parallel to the formal public school system as an opportunity for adults to acquire literacy skills and continue their education. All persons aged fourteen and above can benefit from this second chance, following a principle of lifelong education.

Some commonalities and differences between the two systems deserve attention. Both adult education and the formal school system for the young, which complement each other in providing educational services to two well-differentiated categories of participants, share the objectives of a comprehensive education: "to reach an integration of the physical, intellectual, spiritual and moral personality". Both of them enable their graduates at the secondary stage, after receiving the general secondary certificate, to enrol in institutes of applied continuing education or in the university for various careers. They are well qualified for specific government training programmes or for a range of jobs.

Adult education in Kuwait is parallel to the formal school system at three stages of the prescribed sequence: primary, which is called literacy stage in adult education, intermediate and secondary stages. (There is no pre-school education in the system for adults.) At the end of each of the stages students are supposed to be equally qualified.

The skills to be developed are the same in literacy and primary education; although the curriculum has been adapted to the adult learner's characteristics, the time has been reduced to 15 classes per week during two academic years instead of the 30 classes required for children during four years, and a different syllabus and books have been prepared for adults. At the intermediate and secondary stages the adaptation has not been made yet, so the syllabus and books are common for both systems. Nonetheless, the weekly time has been reduced from 30-32 hours per week for the young to 20-22 for adults; adults are therefore not offered physical education, art, music and home economics. The intermediate and secondary stages are covered in four years in both cases. The students must take end-of-term exams at the three levels. The exams of the secondary stage are the same for both adults and young people.

Two other aspects of integration between the two parallel systems are:

- The use made of the public day-school facilities by the adult learners, who attend classes in the evening. This, of course, reduces costs. Additional adult education centres have only been constructed where they are required.

- The selection of teachers and advisers from among those employed in the formal public school system, since a minimum experience of not less than three years is one of the criteria for the selection of adult educators, along with a professional grade of 'good' or above.

Besides the differences already mentioned about the duration of the courses at the different stages and the adaptation of the curriculum for the literacy stage, there are other differences between the two systems. These were introduced in order to meet adult characteristics and needs:

- Classes for adults take place in the evening.

- The age of admission is 14 and above.

- The adult educators are offered methodological advice for the teaching of adults according to the subject they teach.

- The method of teaching and dealing with adults is based on the psychology of adults in order to prevent their dropping out because of the way they are treated.

- Adults only have to take a final exam in each subject at the end of each term, not weekly or monthly tests as in the case of the public school system.

- Special incentives for motivating adults to continue their education have been established. Some of these are: allowing adults to repeat courses with no limit to the number of times; granting them special leave to attend the exams; giving students at the literacy stage a second chance to take the exams; and participating in community health and cultural programmes especially prepared for adult learners.

From the analysis presented above it is clear that Kuwait's efforts are geared to providing the broad category of people from the age of fourteen and over who lack an adequate level of education with the same knowledge and skills given by the formal public system for the young. All those illiterates who never attended schools, those who dropped out from school to join the world of work early, workers who need a certification of a certain level of education to apply for promotion in their work, and all those men and women who have acquired literacy and want to further their education can find in the parallel system of adult education the previously missed opportunity of raising their educational level.

While the *Tanzanian* study does not refer to any of the programmes described as being "parallel to the formal system", the overall attempt they have made may be regarded as the development of a complete alternative to the formal system rather than a set of courses parallel to those in the formal system. The set of textbooks and manuals for the programmes under the Department of Adult Education, which are designed for a *First Stage*, a *Middle Stage* and an *Advanced Stage*, provide a course which stands on its own and is apparently not in need of any accrediting by the formal system.

7.3 Some Reflexions on the Learning Strategies Establishing Links with the Formal System

A closer examination of the experiments in out-of-school programmes operating parallel to the school system which are described above leads one to the conclusion that there are very specific factors which make the establishment and success of the programmes possible. The key element is the political will to democratise the national educational systems. In addition, the educational tradition of a country must be taken into consideration. Among the various aspects of this feature, it is the medium currently in use for conveying the different ends of teaching which can either promote or hinder the implementation of out-of-school strategies. In those countries where formal and nonformal systems both make use of the same language, it is easy to proceed to equivalent contents qualifications. But in those cases where the linguistic means employed in teaching are different and where there exists a certain antagonism deriving from the fact that opportunities for advancement in an administrative career and the acquisition of highly respected literacy depend upon the kind of education attainable through only one of all the languages being used in that country, it proves difficult to talk about equivalent or parallel education. The areas of resistance at the level of people's individual behaviour are so strong that a determined political commitment is required in order to democratise such a system. Here the nonformal is either at loggerheads with or is forced to attune itself to the formal system. If equivalence exists, then it is of a relatively "cosmetic" nature, for in real terms one system is being coerced to adapt to the norms and conditions of the other. In most cases it is the formal system which is at the helm. The graduates of the out-of-school programmes can, if so authorised, go beyond the dictates of the formal system at certain specified levels (primary certificate, certificate of secondary education, etc.).

In the cases under study, the out-of-school programmes which really do run parallel to those of the formal system occur solely in those countries where the same language is used in both forms of education. This applies in particular to *China*, *Cuba*, *Indonesia*, *Tanzania*, *Venezuela*, and *Vietnam*. In the case study of *Nigeria*, there are examples of programmes which run parallel to, and are interlinked with, those of the school system. But closer examination reveals that conformity has only been established where out-of-school teaching uses English, the official language of the country.

The examples cited show that, on the one hand, there may be a partial or even total equivalence and that, on the other hand, the fixed standards are in fact variable and the effectively rewarded criteria and measures of qualification are all totally different. There are cases of equivalence between general education and vocational training, examples of the interchangeability of qualifications and of the conformity of certificates.

These programmes well illustrate how lifelong education could be viewed as an all-embracing continuum in which the various skills and areas of knowledge provided by the existing structures of education could be accounted for and given the relative value. Figure 7 on p.195 produced by A. Bordia, constitutes a tentative description of such a continuum.

دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة
وزارة التربية والتعليم
الإدارة العامة لتعليم الكبار
棉花技术识字课本
mobral
educación
desarrollo
cultura
salud
CREFAL

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CHAPTER 3

CONCLUDING REMARKS AND PROSPECTS FOR FURTHER ACTION

It is appropriate in concluding this overview of the project to pose certain questions, and to establish more precisely the nature and scope of this study in order to see its objectives and findings in context. The form of presentation which we have chosen may from an academic point of view not be the best for delivering a synthesis of the research undertaken. We might have drawn up tables and engaged in other analytical subtleties. That would have been a fine methodological exercise, and of value in the context of academic research - perhaps even in that of training programmes - but it ceases to make sense in the perspective we have deliberately adopted. We have chosen rather to present real experiences which may inspire the makers and *implementers* of decisions, keeping in mind not only the errors and aberrations involved in any undertaking, but also the courage and the sense of initiative and moderation required by any innovation. We offer a qualitative analysis - at the risk of being subjective on account of the major place accorded to the interpretation of the facts. We have tried to select elements deemed worthy of interest without losing sight of the context which gave rise to them and fashioned their present configuration.

In reviewing quickly the practices of various countries, our aim has been to make a small contribution - precise and concrete, rather than doctrinaire - to research on such a wide-ranging theme as learning strategies and in an area as pressing as that of post-literacy and continuing education.

Despite its many sections, this synthesis has but two objectives, which together explain the heterogeneous character of its two parts. The first, attempting as it does to explore an elusive notion, is perhaps more theoretical and less susceptible of immediately concrete application. The second part, which describes experiences, is obviously the more immediately practical part. In order to provide material (to those examining the strategies described) for the implementation of their literacy and post-literacy campaigns, we have insisted rather on differences and particularities.

1. COMMENTS ON SPECIFIC STRATEGIES

(a) *Rural Newspapers*

- Rural newspapers exist in all the countries involved. They are educational and development-oriented. Most of them are taking an increasingly professional shape. The need to deal with a wide range of subjects and to present content and information to an increasingly varied clientele is moving them towards the *magazine* type.
- The attempt to devote more and more space to neo-literates and to establish a dialogue not only among their various groups, but also between them and administrators, transforms the normal newspaper into a medium for the application of instrumental skills.
- The *do-it-yourself* page and the use of newspapers in discussion groups in libraries reinforce their role in the improvement of quality of life.
- There is a trend towards a decentralisation both in the production and use of the newspapers; this manifests itself in a wider use of local talents and skills, in the recourse to locally available resources, and in the more frequent appearance of wall-newspapers or central village (e.g. market) blackboards.
- At the same time there is another evolution of central (national and regional) papers with a greater degree of professionalisation.

(b) [illegible]

Radio is widely used for post-literacy purposes. It promulgates literacy themes and constitutes a medium for the distance teaching of neo-literates and literacy instructors. Like newspapers, it serves as a forum for exchanges among the different client groups.

The primary advantages of radio and TV are: the possibility of using a more appealing methodology, reaching a much larger and more widely dispersed clientele; and, at the same time, supporting other learning strategies. Radio interacts in a number of ways with the other post-literacy strategies: it supports the printed word and television; it makes use of written and graphic support material; it can be integrated with study and action groups and can be combined with all the other strategies aiming at the retention, continuation, and application of literacy skills.

Radio courses sometimes provide an alternative to the formal school system, thanks to the establishment of equivalent stages and the provision of appropriate certificates to those assiduous learners who have passed the required examinations.

The emphasis on self-reliance, self-responsibility, and self-development results in an encouragement of self-learning, which in turn is reflected in the search for alternative learning structures. These in their turn widen the potential clientele and permit the incorporation of a greater number of participants in the educational process.

Correspondence courses seem to provide one alternative. There are traditional, more academically oriented types, but there are also more innovative courses which rely on a methodology involving the whole community, in which not only neo-literates but also illiterates, extension workers, and local leaders participate.

In all the cases studied, it appears clear that effective programmes depend for their success on linkage with other post-literacy strategies and the formal school system as well as on an adequate combination of distance and face-to-face teaching.

(c) *Libraries*

Attempts are being made to establish more and more libraries. Usually there are small mobile units which assist in the distribution of reading materials and the organisation of group discussion in order to make the subject matter more generally available. Libraries contribute to the creation and maintenance of a vital literate environment. And, given the way in which study groups tend to select and assimilate those contents having immediate practical value for the whole of the community, the libraries play an important role in the improvement of the social environment.

(d) *Group Approach* [illegible] *Strategies*

Some of the strategies use a group approach as a methodológical tool. Some make use of already established groups for developmental, societal or recreational activities. Most of the programmes examined are permeated by a community spirit instilled by group dynamics and other animation techniques which lead to the participation of a wider clientele, if not of the whole community, in the identification of problems and in the search for endogenous solutions.

There is no doubt about the role that these group-centred strategies can play for sensitisation. Their flexible form gives local relevance to messages, and, by adapting to local situations and by reacting to expressed needs, they provide a thoroughly adequate context for learning in a familiar situation.

But the use of traditional media, games, sport, and cultural activities for the purposes of post-literacy raises many questions which have remained unanswered, either because of the non-availability of factual information, or because of the interpretation of the facts. It has not always been easy to distinguish between their role as an educational means and their status as an end.

(e) *Out-of-school Programmes parallel to the School system*

The variety of out-of-school programmes parallel to the formal system indicates to some extent how a lifelong education continuum might be established, in which all the various skills and areas of knowledge acquired through the various structures of education could be accounted for and taken at their true value. We have examples (Cuba, Venezuela) of parallel school and out-of-school programmes with the requisite equivalence at the basic, secondary and higher levels. We have examples of parallel systems (China, Vietnam) in which equivalence may be total, partial or - if the ways in which achievement and qualification are measured and rewarded differ entirely - done away with altogether.

The Tanzanian programme, although not conceived under the label of *parallel and out-of-school*, indicates an overall attempt to develop an alternative system to the formal one.

2. COMMENTS ON STRATEGIES GENERALLY

(a) *In most countries, post-literacy programmes have come into being not as a result of a long-term policy, with all that this implies, but [illegible] actions*

Whereas some literacy and post-literacy programmes have a comprehensive character which makes them appear quite streamlined, most of the cases studied began with very limited approaches, inspired by pragmatism and popular wisdom illustrated by such slogans as "Is it not better to light a candle than to condemn darkness?" We have found hardly a single instance of a comprehensive and mature approach, involving systematic recourse to all the strategies analysed in the present study.

In many cases and for a long time, post-literacy activities were limited to the distribution of reading material, either directly or via a network of libraries. Other bodies provided their target groups with continuation classes, vocational training, family education, correspondence courses, or radio or television educational broadcasts - sometimes in the context of community development, but mostly independently and without long-term co-ordination or planning. We arrive, then, at a mosaic of disparate activities each having its own separate objectives. These learning strategies have not been conceived in a global manner, but progressively discovered, either so as to cater for areas or aspects which were not previously touched upon, or else to back up effectively and in depth already proven techniques.

This general lack of a comprehensive perspective should not detract from the very significant achievement of these countries in responding to needs as they arise. The ability to respond, as indicated in the case studies, denotes a certain vitality which should be nurtured and strengthened. The absence of long-term policies in this field may arise from several causes. One may be the paucity of studies such as this which examine the issues involved in so broad a perspective as that of lifelong education. Another may be the poor dissemination of current thinking in this field in those countries which are most in need of such information. The knowledge explosion which is often talked about may in fact be a hardly noticeable ripple in some countries.

(b) *Most Countries View Post-literacy as Part of an Educational Continuum Serving a Broad Clientele and with Goals Reaching far beyond Simple Retention and Stabilization of Literacy Skills*

If there exists a general tendency at present, then it is towards a multiplication of strategies and a search for their conjunction in order to multiply their effects. The two phases of literacy and post-literacy are generally seen in a single perspective and with reference to common objectives, which are clearly recognised, though perhaps not clearly defined. There are few instances of literacy and post-literacy programmes whose objectives are limited to literacy skills *per se*. However remote it may be, the goal of developing the quality of life has influenced the curricula of literacy and post-literacy programmes at least to the extent that the content selected from such a perspective is of greater relevance. The widening of objectives heralded by the transition from literacy to functional literacy continues while the narrow economic considerations of the latter are giving way to a broader view of man including not only his economic but also his social, cultural, political, and other needs. This process appears to be both a result and a cause of a widening of the clientele served by these programmes. The clientele ranges from children of school age to those who are old enough to be their parents or grand-parents; from those who are clustered together in urban slums to those who are widely dispersed in often inhospitable rural terrains; from those who are trying to make better use of their leisure time to those who are desperately trying to make a living - not to mention several other categories such as individuals outside the formal education system who want to get in.

(c) *There is a Tendency to Integrate Literacy and Post-literacy Programmes with Other National Development Plans, Particularly in the Economic Domain*

Concomitant with the widening of the objectives and the expansion of the clientele, there has been a close linking of literacy and post-literacy programmes with other programmes designed to serve the community. There is first of all the integration of the programme with the surrounding community. This is obtained by the close association of the community in the identification of needs, the negotiation of priorities, the definition of learning objectives, and the evaluation of results. This integration prepares the ground for action and makes the participants receptive and co-operative. It also means that the community concerned will eventually take charge of the action, all of which makes learning easier.

The second aspect concerns the integration of learning with individual, social, vocational, and other development. It is a matter of linking the tasks of every order and degree with the responsibilities of the individual and the educating society. This represents the final goal of educative intervention, viz. the motivational aspect, for which individuals and their groups engage themselves in the learning process which they see as arming them better to face and master the problems which arise and, if need be, to transform their environment and thus improve the quality of their life. This is the full sense given to *functionality, transfer of responsibility, self-reliance* and *socialization*. It is also why many agencies provide *education* (i.e. training) and why post-literacy is perceived as a multi-agency action. Such variety can be explained because it is a matter of development. It also implies that approaches must be complementary and integrated rather than parallel.

Most countries have legal regulations concerning literacy and adult education programmes. However, few countries have made it compulsory to acquire a prescribed literacy level by law. An interesting example of a legal framework for literacy education is that of Kuwait.

Kuwait's Law No. 4 of 11 January 1981 establishes literacy as a national obligation aiming at providing education to every member of society in order to "help them to face life's requirements and raise the cultural and social level both of the individual and of society". It defines the illiterate as a person over the age of fourteen "whose education level does not meet the standards set by the Ministry of Education", which is the fourth grade of the primary stage in writing, reading and counting. The law compels all illiterate Kuwaiti males between fourteen and forty years old, and those Kuwaiti females between fourteen and thirty-five, who are working in the goverment services to register at the nearest literacy centre, regularly attend classes and take the examinations. All others may join literacy education voluntarily.

This law is a good example of the national will to overcome the problem of illiteracy. Without a political commitment, the efforts being made in many developing countries have faced great difficulties. Viewed as a national commitment, literacy is not solely an individual obligation in Kuwait. Official groups and organisations, as well as the private sector enterprises are obliged by the law to participate in the planning and implementing of compulsory literacy education. According to the law, enterprise owners must facilitate the enrolment of illiterates in literacy centres. The Ministry of Education should provide the literacy classes on the working site when there are more than twenty-five employees who need the programme. The law also stipulates that the necessary resources should be devoted by the government. Literacy education for adults is provided to all participants free of charge, including the books, materials and educational equipment needed.

Clearly established penalties for violations of the law by individuals (i.e. not registering at a literacy centre when meeting the criteria of the compulsory law or exceeding the allowed period of absenteeism), and by employers (i.e. disregarding the learning hours the workers are entitled to, dismissing them or reducing their salaries for attending classes, making it difficult for their employees to enrol in a literacy centre, abstaining from reporting the names of workers who should take the course within the prescribed sixty day period and employing workers or granting them a promotion regardless of having a literacy certificate), and the implementation of appropriate supervision mechanisms have contributed to the effective enforcement of the law.

The law prescribes material and social rewards (i.e. cash prizes presented at a special ceremony to outstanding students, with press and television coverage). This is meant to encourage those who have excelled and to stimulate others to do likewise. In addition, those persons who can read and write but do not have the literacy certificate are offered the opportunity to sit an exam in order to obtain it or to be placed in the appropriate level of the literacy programme.

The legal framework was deemed a basic tool for the success of the literacy campaign started in Kuwait in 1981, and it has been implemented gradually since its inception. Although problems still remain to be solved, promulgating and enforcing the law has proved to be an effective strategy for increasing the literacy rate in the country and opening possibilities of further education to the people.

The initiatives and experiences of Kuwait, and those of other countries described earlier in this synopsis, despite their limited number and their internal inadequacies, constitute a methodological and a concrete contribution which is invaluable for the formulation and the implementation of coherent post-literacy policies, for they throw light on indispensable pre-conditions and the orientation to be adopted.

They show that there are proven practical mechanisms for facilitating continuous learning which require more good will than money, more ideas than bureaucratic structures, and more self-help than outside expertise.

(d) *There is a Definite Tendency to Co-ordinate/Integrate Literacy and Post-literacy Strategies*

There is an integration which might be termed *internal*. This concerns mainly the strategies themselves and is linked to the learning process. It leads to a concerted action of all the strategies converging on post-literacy learning. This internal integration comes about through harmonisation of objectives, pooling of resources and of means, consideration of reciprocal effects, and use of common or borrowed facilities. It enables certain processes and materials to be economised. It provides learning with a completely multidimensional character. When a number of strategies support each other in a co-ordinated fashion, the learner is immersed in a learning environment from which it is difficult for him to escape. The literacy centres of *Tanzania* form such an environment on which so many co-ordinated activities converge, as is shown in Figure 6 on page 175.

(e) *There is a Tendency to Co-ordinate Programmes with the Formal System*

Several countries seem to be making a definite search for a multiple approach to meet the goal of education for all. Universal primary education is not regarded by some countries as a service to be provided only through a traditional formal system. Nor is primary education, viewed in terms of some of its content and objectives, regarded as being age-bound (though the methodology might be). In at least one country - Mali - the nonformal structures evolved to provide literacy and post-literacy services are being regarded as a possible alternative to the formal system at the primary level. Mechanisms for accrediting competences acquired in various ways have been established in some countries; these mechanisms facilitate the transfer from the nonformal to the formal system, which still establishes the *standards* in nearly all the countries. Indonesia and Tanzania appear as exceptions in that they have produced a set of texts for courses where the grading is not specifically tied to the formal system and are in fact independent of it. The curriculum is as rich as might be expected from a similar course within the formal system. The Venezuelan programme of providing out-of-school youth with a vocational training course combined with a general education component equivalent to a specific cycle of the formal system is an attempt of a different type. Young people not only acquire vocational training which enhances their employability but also acquire the credentials to continue their studies in the formal system if they wish to do so.

(f) [illegible]

The studies themselves, as well as the discussions during the orientation seminars, clearly point to the need to know more about evaluation. It is only rarely that a programme has been evaluated, and it is still rarer to find one in which evaluation constitutes a planned activity. As was pointed out earlier, it may be that much more does actually take place under evaluation that has been described in the case studies. The orientation seminars devoted only a small amount of time to evaluation since that was not their major focus.

(g) [illegible]

(i) [illegible]

(ii) [illegible]

A possibility which emerged during the orientation seminars, and of which indications are to be found in the case studies, is a systematic co-operative effort between the countries concerned. As it is, some countries use the printed materials produced in a neighbouring country on account of the identity of the language and the similarity of the socio-economic conditions. Some newspapers have a readership beyond their national borders. Radio broadcasts are received in neighbouring countries, although in the case cited they are more of

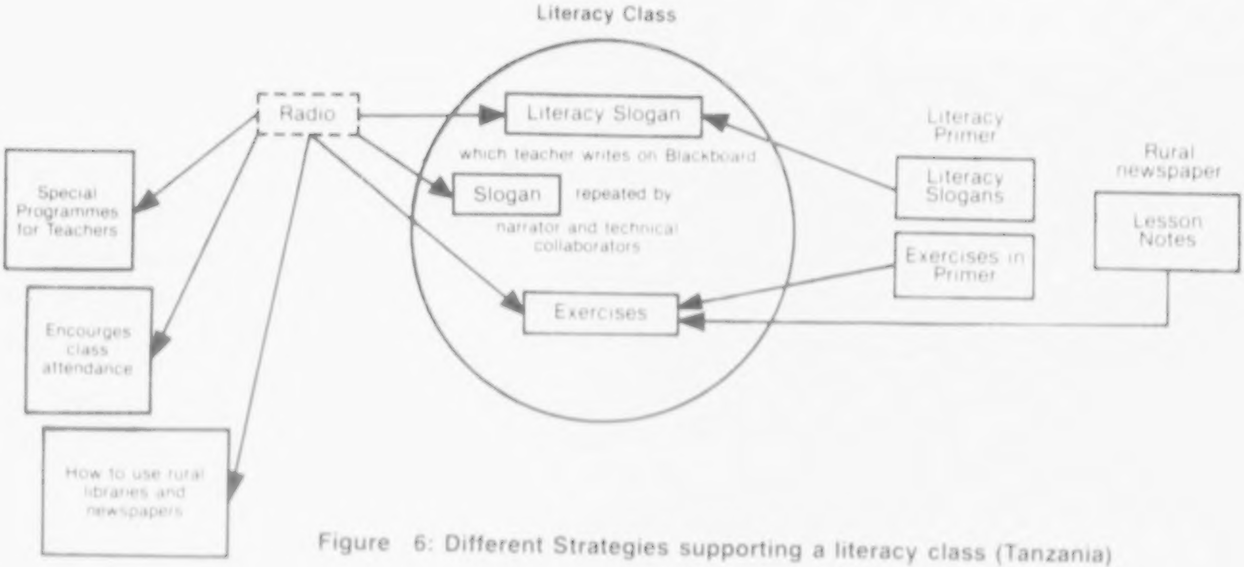
Literacy Class
Radio
Literacy Slogan
which teacher writes on Blackboard
Slogan
repeated by
narrator and technical collaborators
Exercises
Special Programmes for Teachers
Encourges class attendance
How to use rural libraries and newspapers
Literacy Primer
Literacy Slogans
Exercises in Primer
Rural newspaper
Lesson Notes

Figure 6: Different Strategies supporting a literacy class (Tanzania)

a hindrance than a help. Not all countries which need them have institutes of linguistic research. But different countries have languages in common and the work done in one country on such aspects as developing a script and designing a key-board for a typewriter would undoubtedly be useful for several others, even if these have their own research institutes.

Another area in which a systematic co-operative effort is possible is in the training of literacy and post-literacy workers. During the orientation seminars, the wish to visit each other's countries - simply to observe what was being done - was explicitly expressed. This type of exchange visit may suffice for key personnel who could use the case-studies to acquire the preliminary information necessary to make the best use of a field visit. Such exchange visits may be followed by training sessions for field workers from several countries. Exchange of material such as newspapers, books, and posters would also make a significant contribution. These are all possibilities which exist and which need to be vigorously pursued.

CHAPTER 4

ISSUES IN POST-LITERACY

BY ANIL BORDIA

Elimu Haina Mwisho
(Education never ends)
Julius K. Nyerere, New Year
Speech of 1970 inaugurating the
Adult Education Year.

INTRODUCTION

The struggle for universal primary education began over a century ago, and practically all the industrialised countries insist on children concluding their secondary education. In Third World countries, however, universal primary education still seems a distant dream. This, and population increase are the main reasons why, despite an improvement in the rate of literacy, the number of illiterates throughout the world has been increasing. Although the Soviet Union launched its adult literacy campaign towards the end of 1919, on the international level adult literacy began to receive attention only after the Second World War, the aftermath of which was marked by the success of liberation struggles in the Third World. Vietnam, China, Cuba and Tanzania, and other countries made mass education the core of their effort at national reconstruction. While illiteracy continues to be a serious impediment for most developing countries, an equally important phenomenon is the emergence of a large mass of literate youth and adults who could play a crucial role in the development of their countries, but do not fully do so. Effective programmes of post-literacy and continuing education would go a long way to solving this problem.

In this paper we shall first discuss the clientele of post-literacy programmes and then the objectives of those programmes. In the third section, Learning Strategies, we will briefly refer to some of the communication choices available to planners and also present a design for the continuity of education from the primary and literacy stages to post-literacy and continuing education. We will then conclude with a short summary.

1. POST-LITERACY FOR WHOM?

The question we are raising is: what are the circumstances in which basic education - primary education of children and adult literacy - can really contribute to the well-being of the individual and the family and to national development? Our argument is that, as presently organised in most Third World countries, primary education and adult literacy programmes drain away scarce resources, and there are serious questions as to their impact on the individual, the family, and the community. We further argue that in order to make education a means of mobilising the masses, much more needs to be done than provide initial instruction.

1.1 Primary Education

The primary education figures given in Table 7 reveal a picture of staggering expansion, steep drop-out rates and low rates of transfer. Take, for instance, Indonesia, a country which is attempting to deal with the problem of primary education through the simultaneous expansion of the school system and nonformal programmes. The enrolment in primary education in that country in 1978 was 22 million, constituting a gross enrolment ratio of 94 per cent. However, only 775 persons out of 1,000 enrolled in Class I completed primary education, and only 44.3 per cent of those who completed primary education had the opportunity to pursue education beyond that stage. In Tanzania, where enrolment at the primary stage is one hundred per cent of the relevant age group and where the drop-out rate is also low, only 8.7 per cent of the children who pass the primary stage have the opportunity to pursue secondary education. In India, only 411 out of the 1,000 who enter grade I survive the primary stage (5 years), and about 80 per cent of those who complete the primary stage continue their education to the next stage.

It is evident that economic necessities acting on the family and the restrictive educational system drive out the vast majority of children from school before they complete secondary education.

Of even greater relevance for Third World countries is the problem of deteriorating standards. With rapid expansion, the quality of education has suffered grievously. Some recent research findings in this regard are quite disturbing. On the basis of a comprehensive review of research, Simmons has the

Table 7 Enrolment, Drop-out Rates and Transition Rates in Selected Developing Countries (latest year available)

Country	Enrolment in the first level (Total) Latest year	Gross enrolment ratio First level Latest year	Drop-out rates % (1)	Transition rate from the last grade of primary to first grade of secondary
Bangladesh	8,219,313	67	81.1	63.2
Botswana	156,664	93	25.2	29.7
Brazil	20,566,760	88	72.0	93.6
Burma	3,711,464	84	67.9	61.2
Colombia	4,337,607	124	62.9	96.7
Cuba	1,550,323	122	16.8	90.5
Egypt	4,434,557	75	20.8	72.2
Ethiopia	1,811,251	36	n.a.	78.0
India	69,749,657	79	58.9	79.9
Indonesia	22,024,819	94	22.5	44.3
Iraq	2,609,182	117	6.7	96.4
Jamaica	370,516	98	25.5	104.3
Kenya	3,232,000+	99	47.7	44.9
Mali	293,227	28	39.4	67.3
Nepal	1,012,530	69	n.a.	68.0
Nicaragua	363,781	85	72.2	94.7
Nigeria	9,485,300+	79	n.a.	251.5
Somalia	271,139	50	n.a.	20.0
Sudan	1,427,959	52	25.0	44.2
Tanzania	3,359,966	100	15.9	8.7
Venezuela	2,456,203	108	32.4	83.8
Vietnam	7,923,495	122	n.a.	89.9
Zambia	980,406	98	19.4	18.8
Zimbabwe	883,059	97	n.a.	n.a.

+ Estimate

(1) Drop-out rates have been computed on the basis of the proportion of those reaching the final grade of first level education disregarding both the differences in number of grades and repeaters in different grades in different countries.

For other notes and remarks refer to Appendices 1, 2 and 3.

Source: Paris: Unesco, Office of Statistics.

following to say:

> "The level of reading comprehension of both ten-year olds and fourteen-year olds in developing countries was surprisingly low. Significant numbers of even the fourteen-year olds had to be considered semi-literate. They did not approach being able to read and understand national newspapers. This is a very disappointing finding since the majority of students who get any education at all in developing countries do not stay in school past the age of twelve or fourteen." (1)

And it is not as if these findings on reading comprehension were unique. The findings on mathematics and science closely correspond to those on reading comprehension. Some very important data have been given in the studies by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). For example, a comprehensive national survey of the school system in Botswana undertaken by Torsten Husên has revealed that, even after seven years of schooling, the level of language learning by children is so low that they cannot be expected to be self-reliant for further learning. (2)

Several countries (e.g. Indonesia, the Philippines, Thailand, India and Mali) are attempting to organise part-time nonformal education programmes for children who cannot attend school full-time. Since most of the pupils who benefit from nonformal education programmes are engaged in work during the day, providing their families with essential economic support or help at home, there is little motivation for the parents to continue their children's education beyond a very basic level. Moreover, nonformal education programmes are often given a step-motherly treatment by policy makers, and standards in these programmes are deplorably low. Consequently, the problems discussed above, i.e. the termination of education upon conclusion of the primary stage and the deterioration in quality, characterise nonformal education programmes in an accentuated manner.

1.2 Adult Literacy

It is perhaps true that due to the attention adult literacy has received in the last few decades its importance is universally acknowledged. It should, however, also be noted that it is mainly in the countries committed to bringing about fundamental changes in the socio-economic system that successful campaigns have been organised and programmes developed for the continuing education of neo-literates. Some examples of this are Vietnam, China, Cuba, Burma, Tanzania, Ethiopia, and Iraq (3). The situation is quite different in countries which are not similarly committed to genuine social, political, and economic change. These countries have yet to organise successful literacy programmes, particularly programmes which aim at involving people in development schemes. Systematic organisation of post-literacy programmes in these countries is an even more critical issue.

Viewed as an essential sequel to literacy programmes, there are four aspects connected with post-literacy on which attention must be focused:

- the fact that in several countries a large number of persons complete literacy courses and have to be provided with post-literacy services;
- there are wide variations in the level achieved by those assumed to have become literate;
- there is enough evidence to suggest that a substantial proportion of persons who acquire literacy skills relapse into illiteracy;
- there is a basic question regarding the use made by literate people of their literacy skills.

A perusal of Table 8 gives an idea of the large numbers involved in the adult literacy programmes. Several other countries have also expressed their intention to launch ambitious programmes, e.g. Zimbabwe, Malawi, Bangladesh and Afghanistan. While most of the countries are conscious of the importance of post-literacy programmes, insufficient financial resources or technical know-how stand in the way of organising programmes.

Tanzania has established a carefully worked-out grading system for testing literacy achievement. Only persons who pass level IV are considered to have become functionally literate. Following the Tanzanian example, Ethiopia has also started to organise national literacy tests; only those persons who pass these tests are considered qualified to take up post-literacy programmes. In most other countries of the Third World, participation in literacy programmes for a specified duration is sufficient for a person to be called literate. Data collected in the course of evaluation of the Experimental World Literacy

Table 8 Illiteracy Rates and Literacy Programmes in Selected Developing Countries

Country	Projected illiteracy rate (1980)	Size of the literacy programme in the peak year		
		No. of classes	Enrolment	Peak year
Brazil	24.5	n.a.	1,647,510	1980
Burma	30.3	90,404[1]	397,370	1971
Cuba	n.a.	268,420[1]	707,000	1961
Egypt	45.7	962	28,319	1978
Ethiopia	95.2	35,000	5,400,000	1979
India	59.7	130,000	3,640,000	1978
Indonesia	33.1	60,000	600,000[2]	1980
Jamaica	11.3	10,000	96,928	1973
Nicaragua	33.5	200,000[1]	850,000	1979
Somalia	94.8	25,000[1]	1,500,000	March 1973 to June 1975
Tanzania	52.5	140,000[2]	5,819,612	1977

[1] Volunteers [2] Rounded figures

Sources: Unesco in regard to projections of illiteracy, and publications and papers of the governments concerned regarding the rest of the data.

Programme brought out the wide discrepancy between enrolment and success in the achievement of literacy skills.

Table 9 Enrolment and Success in Literacy Programmes (rounded figures)

Country	Initial enrolment	Examinees	Pass
Tanzania	466,000	293,600	96,900
Iran	97,400	46,900	13,900
Ethiopia	36,800	21,700	9,300
Ecuador	17,500	10,000	4,100
Sudan	7,400	2,400	600

Source: The Experimental World Literacy Programme: A Critical Assessment. Paris: Unesco, 1976.

Unfortunately, not many studies have been made on the retention of literacy. Roy and Kapoor, taking a sample from the programme organised by Literacy House, Lucknow (in northern India), came to the conclusion that there is a negative correlation between the duration of the literacy course and the standard reached on the one hand and the probability of relapse on the other. Taking samples of persons who had completed literacy courses three to ten years prior to the research undertaken, they came up with the following data:

Table 10 Percentage Loss of Literacy Skills

Samples	Loss of literacy skills per cent
Literacy samples	45.4 (overall average)
Rural literacy males	49.6
Urban literacy males	35.5
Rural literacy females	51.3

Source: Roy, P. and Kapoor, J.M. *The Retention of Literacy* New Dehli: The Macmillan Company of India, 1975.

Keeping in view the low level of the skills acquired in literacy courses, the fact that the general milieu fails to promote the retention of literacy, and in view of the inadequacy of post-literacy programmes, this situation is by no means unique to northern India.

The use made of literacy by learners and its impact on them, their families, and the community has not yet been made the subject of much systematic research. The EWLP (Experimental World Literacy Programme) evaluation team looked at this aspect in some detail. They concluded that from the point of view of new literates' "insertion into the milieu", or their mastery of the milieu, there were clear indications of this happening although not enough evidence was available to speak in precise terms. In several instances they could see "the beginnings of a new social dynamic involving a redistribution of socio-economic initiative" (4). Roy and Kapoor observed that there was a great deal of non-use of reading skills. According to them, this situation came about because reading material suitable for new literates was not available, and there was little to motivate the learners to continue their learning (5). Use of literacy skills depends on the confidence of the individual and on needs arising for him to use those skills. As we observed earlier, the level of literacy is generally rather low, and there are few occasions when a new literate has to use the skills.

1.3 Post-literacy Clientele - A Wider Perspective

Behind the emphasis on primary education and adult literacy are the assumptions that during these programmes learners do acquire basic educational skills, and that these skills are indispensable for both the personal development of the individual and the role he can play as a member of his family and within society. In other words, it is believed that through basic education a person secures access to much wider opportunities of learning; that he is able to take better care of himself and his family; that as a worker he is more productive, and that he is able to play a discriminating and constructive role in his environment and within society, as well as in civic and political life.

The extent to which these expectations are fulfilled depends on the duration and the quality of the education received, on the opportunities for continuing education, and on the environment in which the graduates of the basic education programmes live. It is generally acknowledged that expansion of educational programmes has been at the expense of quality. Competences achieved in primary education vary vastly from country to country, and within each country. But it is clear that if full benefits are to be derived from primary education, the children who complete that stage must be provided with diversified choices for continuing their education. Similarly, if widespread relapse into illiteracy and the stagnation of skills acquired during literacy programmes are to be prevented, immense emphasis must be laid on the systematic organisation of learning and on action programmes suited to the social, cultural, and occupational needs and interests of the new literates.

The clientele of post-literacy is illustrated in Figure 7, which also shows the exclusiveness of the formal system of edu-

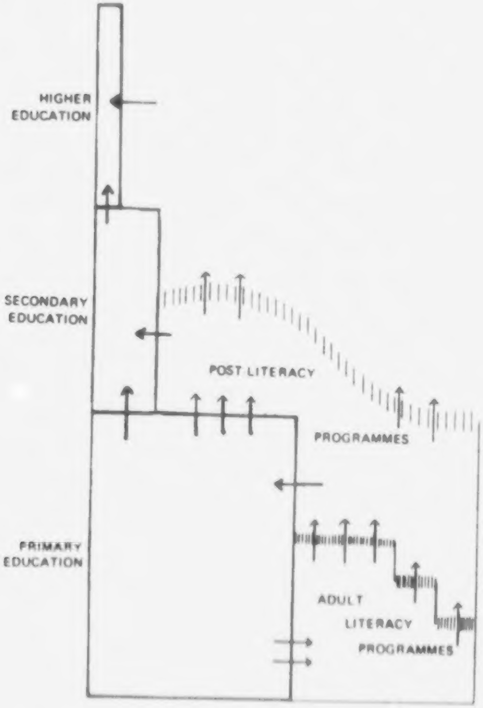
HIGHER EDUCATION
SECONDARY EDUCATION
POST LITERACY
PROGRAMMES
PRIMARY EDUCATION
ADULT
LITERACY
PROGRAMMES

Figure 7: Clientele of Post-literacy

cation as it exists in most countries at present and the need to view the entire education system as an inter-connected whole with scope for lateral entry into the formal system and possibilities for upward movement available to all. The figure also attempts to present the idea of literacy and post-literacy programmes as an accessible continuum.

Bearing in mind the fragmented and sectoral approach in educational planning, we should stress the need to organise learning opportunities for young people who have left primary education as well as the need to organise programmes for adults who have completed literacy courses. By the time children complete primary education, particularly in the rural areas, they have become part of the adult world. In fact, the adults themselves suggest that preference in post-literacy programmes should be given to young people who have left primary schools. Secondly, the concern of educational planners is universal literacy. This purpose cannot be served as long as a significant percentage of graduates of primary education keep relapsing into illiteracy. Thirdly, it is simply not practical to organise post-literacy programmes, such as library or radio forums, exclusively for those who have benefited from adult literacy classes. Nor is it possible to organise separate post-literacy (or continuing education) programmes for different categories of persons. The effort should be to involve in such programmes all who can benefit from them. And, finally, an environment for lifelong education and purposeful use of literacy can be created only if post-literacy and continuing education programmes are not fragmented. As Unesco's recommendation on this subject put it: "for full development of the human personality, particularly in view of the rapid pace of scientific, technical, economic and social change, education must be considered on a global basis and as a lifelong process." (6)

2. THE PURPOSE OF BASIC EDUCATION AND LITERACY PROGRAMMES

2.1 Some Assumptions Behind Programmes of Basic Education

We should first ask: what is the purpose of primary education and literacy programmes? Much has been written on this subject, and it is not our intention here to enter into a debate on the objectives of education, particularly basic education. Nor do we wish to take a rigid view in this regard; rather we hope to present a set of assumptions generally acceptable to countries with different socio-political systems and to educationists with different philosophical positions. There is wide agreement on what is expected from primary education and adult literacy in respect of the following points:

Self-Reliance in Learning

The supposition is that the level of literacy at completion of primary education or adult literacy courses is sufficient for essential reading, writing, and numeracy needs. This is the assumption behind the universal concern about deteriorating standards in primary education and insufficient achievement among pupils. The increasing emphasis among planners of adult literacy programmes on the level of achievement in a particular period rather than on the level of participation is also explained by this assumption.

Viewed as a Stage in a Learning Continuum

It is universally recognised that learning organised for pupils during primary education or adult literacy courses can only partially equip them for their needs. Continuing education is, therefore, presupposed in the organisation of these programmes. In several countries, provision exists for the large-scale transition of pupils from the primary stage to the secondary stage; there is also often provision for persons who have participated in adult literacy programmes to move on to systematically organised complementary education (as in Vietnam) or to other, similar programmes. Even in countries where such provisions do not exist, the hope is that these learners might continue their education somehow.

Utilisation for Development

Another universal assumption is that primary education and adult literacy should promote development - of the individual, the family, the community, and even of the nation itself. Without necessarily going into questions of cause and effect, educational planners accept a correlation between poverty and illiteracy. Several countries have included primary education and adult literacy as a part of the minimum needs programme for amelioration of the condition of the masses. World Bank and UN agencies recognise literacy as one of the indicators of the level of devel-

development. In some countries, it is specifically pointed out that literacy would facilitate transfer of technology to the persons who have remained deprived of its benefits. The Sixth Five Year Plan of India calls this the "techniracy" dimension of basic education (7).

Communication and Participation

The assumption here is that literacy should not only enable a person to continue education and lead to individual and social development, but should also eliminate the barriers which exist between the illiterates and the world of communication. In his novel, *Gora*, Rabindranath Tagore presented a touching portrait of what Paulo Freire was later to call "the culture of silence". The point which Tagore makes is that the traditional forms of culture, rich and lively though they are, tend to be one-sided; the illiterate person seldom participates in dialogue (8). Whether this communication is a purely personal affair, (writing letters, for example) or a means of individual and group assertion, it is taken to be an essential aspect of a literate culture.

In their continuing search for suitable primary education and viable programmes of adult literacy, the countries of the Third World have, when formulating their plans, to keep in view the four assumptions referred to above.

2.2 Implications

These assumptions have three distinct implications for the planning of primary education and adult literacy programmes. First, determined efforts have to be made to ensure a high level of literacy achievement in these programmes. Apart from improved teacher training, use should be made of systematic learner evaluation for improved achievement. The technique adopted in Tanzania for raising the standards of primary education and adult literacy holds tremendous promise. Competencies are specified and curricula related to these, and individuals must achieve these competencies before graduating from primary school or an adult literacy course. The second point in this regard is the need to insist on the integration of the curriculum of primary education and adult literacy with the life and work of the learners, "reading the text from reading the context", as Paulo Freire has said (9). To the extent that this is successful, motivation of learners would be facilitated, application of learning to practical situations helped, and interest sustained in continuing education. While the importance of these two points is generally recognised, the third point tends to get neglected. This point involves inculcating in primary education and adult literacy courses a spirit of preliminaries, and an awareness among the pupils of the indispensability of continuing education. This is very important because it is not enough to organise programmes of post-literacy; it is at least as important to create among learners a receptive mentality for it.

2.3 Programme Objectives for Post-Literacy

The assumptions behind primary education and adult literacy programmes, as well as the facts regarding their quality, must determine the purpose of post-literacy programmes. By and large, the following elements may serve to describe the purpose of such programmes:

Remediation

Because of the growing emphasis on organising adult literacy programmes in the form of short-duration campaigns, it is difficult to achieve satisfactory standards. Similarly, duration and quality of primary education vary widely - not only transnationally, but also within countries. Therefore, one of the purposes of post-literacy must be to remedy the deficiency of primary education and adult literacy programmes.

Continuation

This refers to retention, reinforcement, and stabilisation and upgrading of literacy skills, and to the improvement of functional skills. Traditionally, this is the principal function of post-literacy. It must continue to be the focus of attention.

Application

Normally, the improvement of literacy and functional skills should lead to their application in living and working situations. Application has to be encouraged by positive measures, e.g. by the provision of the necessary inputs to supplement knowledge concerning the improvement of agricultural practices, the provision of family planning aids along with an understanding of the importance of their use, etc. Through application of literacy, people begin to participate in the development process.

Communitisation

The process of positive socialisation and the use of communication skills for individual and group assertion may be called communitisation. It may take the shape of group action for the improvement of the environment, or of vitalisation of community forums and popular organisations for securing social justice. Communitisation is the means by which the individual acquires a new identity.

3. LEARNING STRATEGIES

In this section, we stress the importance of a learning environment, indicate some of the communication choices available for this purpose, and then present a matrix of learning sequences to aid the planners.

3.1 Learning Environment

More than any other factor, environment determines learning. In the first place, the individual should feel that he/she *needs* to continue learning. Women whose spouses are far away need to improve their literacy in order to correspond with them. Persons learning a skill which requires a certain level of literacy feel *impelled* to attain that level. Need or motivation for learning is, indeed, well accepted as a very important consideration in the planning of educational programmes. Closely related to need and motivation is a second factor in the learning environment, namely the extent to which the individual has the *opportunity* to continue learning. A real opportunity is one within his reach; expense, inconvenience of time and location, unsuitability to taste, etc. should not stand in the way of his availing himself of the opportunity to learn. For opportunity to be really accessible, mere availability may not be enough; positive steps to secure participation might be necessary. For example, a village library which contains books and periodicals of interest and is open at the time when readers can be expected to have leisure often remains unused by most of the villagers. If, however, the library worker visits the homes of prospective readers and draws their attention to something interesting, and if he is furthermore willing to help if the neo-literate falters, then the latter is much more likely to succeed. Need as well as opportunity can be naturally enhanced if there is a *stimulus of social and economic development*. This is the third and perhaps the most important point. Learning and literacy cannot grow in a stagnant situation. Linkage of learning and development gives vitality, a dynamic potential, to both.

In the creation of a learning environment, use should be made of all kinds of educational and developmental activities. Formal, nonformal and informal education programmes (10) as well as apparently non-educational activities can make a mutually supportive network to promote learning and the well-being of the learners.

3.2 Communication Choices

A learning environment does not come about simply by chance; it has to be planned and organised, particularly in societies marked by technological backwardness and an inheritance of widespread illiteracy. This cannot be done by resorting to one type of programme or employing one medium; nor can it be organised all at one time. A variety of communication options, generally in conjunction, have to be explored. We mention below the main options available.

The Printed Word

Post-literacy is sometimes treated as synonymous with the stabilisation of, and further building upon, the literacy skills acquired during initial basic education. Although retention and use of literacy skills are not the only purpose of post-literacy programmes, they are nonetheless an indispensable aspect of them. Consequently, the printed or written word appropriately has a centrality among the media available for post-literacy. Apart from the fact that use of this medium is essential for retention of literacy, the printed word has other merits also. The variety of ways in which it can be used makes it suitable for varying circumstances. Apart from books, journals, newspapers, posters, etc., this medium lends itself to effective use even when printing and paper resources are scarce. In some parts of India, the exteriors of walls are used to write things with which the villages are already familiar. A community blackboard, on which local and national news is written daily, can also serve a useful purpose.

Technological Communication

One may not quite agree with McLuhan's assertion that the new media have done away with the need for literacy, yet one can hardly exaggerate the importance of media such as radio, television, and film. The problem with these media is that they are controlled by commercial establishments or by the State machinery; therefore, they tend to be "used" by those who control them. However, these media are already exerting an immense influence, and, when used with well-organised listening groups, can be a most valuable tool for continuing education. In Pakistan, television is used for teaching literacy as well as for post-literacy purposes. Educational broadcasting in that country has captured the imagination of policy-makers and is being used as an important tool of mass education. Television and radio programmes are linked with simple booklets on agriculture, home management, nutrition, health-care, etc., and this media mix is proving to be most effective (11). Mention should also be made here of the extraordinary Radio Educative Rurale of Senegal, which has shown how radio can intervene in rural life and produce dialogue between villagers and national leaders. In this programme, the villagers address letters to national leaders, bringing to their knowledge the corruption and inefficiency in the field programmes. The leaders in turn have the letters studied and make broadcasts in response to them (12). Films are used with great effect in socialist countries to mobilise and inform the people. Although successes have been had in practically all parts of the world, we seem to be quite far from a "popularisation" of these media - there is instead preoccupation in most Third World countries with using them commercially and for urban entertainment; and owing to the expense involved in media like TV, films, and slides, these countries have restricted their use.

Correspondence Education

Referring to the usefulness of this medium, Renée Erdos says:

> "Relatively cheap means of instruction to cover a bigger student body is, however, not the only advantage of correspondence instruction. Without requiring the students to have any more complicated equipment than paper and pen it can reach them wherever they live. They can study at whatever time is convenient to them, and can work at their individual paces. This very flexibility makes possible education for many who would not receive it in any other way." (13)

The case of Tanzania best illustrates the potential of this method. In that country, only a small proportion of the persons who complete primary education can move to the secondary education stage through the school system (Table 1). Those who cannot, as well as those who have completed the literacy course, have the option of continuing their systematic education through correspondence. The courses are in political education, languages, commerce, history, etc. The deficiencies of the postal system are made up for by an *ad hoc* courier service. Correspondence education is one of the most important means by which Tanzania provides a universal opportunity for continued education. Several other countries have started experiments such as open schools and a variety of other open-learning programmes combining radio with correspondence courses.

Folk and Traditional Media

These include folklore, folk theatre, ballads, puppetry, and the traditional crafts. It is through these media that the people, particularly in the countries of Africa and Asia, have retained their tradition of learning, cultural identity, and system of values. One of the unfortunate aspects of modern education is that it displaces traditional learning, and one of the critical issues in post-literacy is: how can the oral and folk forms of learning grow side by side with modern literate and scientific education? Although some individuals and institutions have been exploring ways of accomplishing this, Mathur has given an elaboration of this theme which, perhaps, contains the best explanation of the potential of these media in the modern context. Mathur contends that the vitality of the folk media can be destroyed if they are manipulated to communicate the messages which seem of obvious relevance to governments. He favours support and freedom for these media, which, he says, have sufficient dynamism to adjust to modern times and even to respond to modern challenges (14). On the other hand, there are several attempts at "use" of the folk media for developmental purposes. Ross Kidd has referred to numerous examples of the use of folk theatre for conscientisation and community development activities (15). Traditional forms of cultural expression were also used for delivery of modern messages in the community education programme of the Cultural Group of People's Educational Association of Ghana (16). These latter examples raise the question of the preservation of cultural heritage and the problems that can arise due to well-intentioned intervention by "specialists" with western orientations.

Functional Training

This is important for the improvement of the socio-economic condition of the participants and for the fulfilment of national objectives such as higher agricultural production, afforestation, family planning, improved nutrition, etc. The courses can be as short as 3 days (to explain about an impending locust menace) or as long as several months (for learning new vocational skills). An important aspect of this is the need to raise the technological level in the rural areas and to systematically introduce devices which can reduce hardship and drudgery in the lives of the rural populace, particularly of women (smokeless ovens, bio-gas, solar cookers, etc.). There are several interesting experiences which illustrate the issues connected with functional training. One of them is the Khitpen-man concept developed in Thailand. Supposedly based on Buddhist philosophy, in practical terms this enables groups of villagers to organise vocational, health, and handicraft courses. The longer courses are divided into units, which, like the semester system, give credits to learners; the learner can therefore temporarily discontinue the course if necessary (17). Influenced by the folk high schools of Denmark, several countries are organising residential programmes for functional and general education, e.g. Folk Development Colleges in Tanzania, Vidyapeeths and Krishi Vijnan Kendras in India, and Community Skill Training Centres in Ethiopia.

Physical Culture and Recreation

These, too, are significant aspects of continuing education and should not be ignored. For example, yoga can become a means for much healthier living and for securing a much better control over one's faculties. Community physical exercises in China keep the people fit, help them to relax, and promote community harmony. Similarly, various forms of recreation can also help in promoting learning and community fellow feeling. This is an area in which little work has been done in Third World countries. (The Prague-based European Centre for Leisure and Education has undertaken several studies which have relevance mainly to the socialist and other industrialised countries.)

3.3 A Matrix of Levels and Activities

Based on an analysis of the situation in primary education and adult literacy, on the objectives and scope of post-literacy programmes, and on this brief review of some of the choices available for the organisation of post-literacy activities, we attempt below to present a matrix of possible post-literacy programmes corresponding to levels of basic education. Some assumptions and clarifications in this connection should be stated first:

(1) In categorising and describing the levels we have drawn heavily on Ora Grebelsky (18) and Y.O. Kassam (19). Essentially, this is to help educational planners and administrators in the Third World countries promote education and to build upon a given situation.

(2) Owing to the vast variations in achievement at the level of basic education, the establishment of correspondences between nonformal adult literacy programmes and primary education is, in some ways, arbitrary. Curriculum designers for both these types of programme would claim, and rightly so, that they comprise a great deal more than acquisition of literacy skills. A more refined and precise matrix could doubtlessly be developed by someone better qualified than the present author. Meanwhile, we have been encouraged to attempt to establish correspondences between adult literacy and primary education by a number of authorities, including the evaluation team of the Experimental World Literacy Programme (EWLP) (20).

(3) There are some literacy programmes which last much less than 150 hours or 6 months. Some well-known educational authorities have claimed that high motivation among learners, improved instructional methods, and the correlation of learning with politics or work can lead to a satisfactory level of literacy in much less time (21). In indicating the numbers of hours of adult literacy programmes, we are:

- assuming an average level of motivation and instructional methods;
- assuming that continuous attendance is not common; and,
- recognising the trend towards longer courses.

(4) Indications regarding literacy and numeracy achievement refer mainly to adult literacy

Table 11 Matrix of Levels of Basic Education and Post-literacy Programmes

Stages	Description	Duration or level		Literacy/Numeracy achievement	Post-literacy activity suitable	Type of programme corresponding to suitable activity
		Adult literacy	Primary education			
I	Semi-literacy	150-200 hrs	Class I or II	- recognition of alphabet and words - halting reading ability - writing of simple words - recognition and writing of numbers	- literacy of Stage II - group discussion around basic functional and occupational problems, using written or printed material where possible	- regular literacy classes - self study - group work
II	Partial literacy	300-350 hrs or about 1 year	Class III or IV	- reading of simple sentences with comprehension - writing of simple short sentences - counting up to 1000 - addition and subtraction of two-figure numbers	- literacy of Stage III - beginning with study and discussion around information sheets - preparation of work plans and attempt to write them - group reading	- literacy classes with intervals - introduction to new literate magazines and simple books - group work and projects, including preparation of written plans
III	Elementary literacy	500-550 hrs or about 2 years	Class V or VI	- reading fluently and with understanding texts written in the spoken language - writing of messages, letters and small compositions - addition, subtraction and multiplication of three-figure numbers and division of two-figure numbers	- literacy of Stage IV - group reading followed by discussion - preparation of posters and handwritten newspapers - drafting of work projects of individual and family - reading of extension literature	- continuation of literacy classes with wider intervals and emphasis on self-study - organisation of village library and circulating books, magazines and newspapers - group work projects based on properly written projects

Stages	Description	Duration or level		Literacy/Numeracy achievement	Post-literacy activity suitable	Type of programme corresponding to suitable activity
		Adult literacy	Primary education			
IV	Functional literacy	More than 2 years, sometimes stretching to 4 years	Class VII or VIII	- reading with interest small books, extension literature and newspapers - writing of complex sentences, expansion of vocabulary and writing of applications to officials or loan giving agencies - solving simple arithmetic problems, keeping of daily records	- practising literacy and numeracy skills, and progress in the chosen direction - study and discussion of extension literature with extension workers - writing of new literates' reading material, with illustrations - regular reading of magazines and newspapers - preparation of village projects	- correspondence education - regularly reading books and magazines from library - regularly writing news on village blackboard or wall newspaper - establishment of village museum or science centre - village development projects - involving village community in learning programmes and action projects

classes and are based on studies undertaken in respect of the Tanzanian programme. This also holds true, more or less, of the situation in India. As the IEA (International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement) studies have shown, there is so much variation in achievement at the primary level that precise statements in this respect are difficult.

(5) In suggesting post-literacy activities and types of programme that may be undertaken, we have deliberately emphasised literacy (including numeracy) and functionality. These are likely to have universal acceptance and are comparatively easy to transform into curricular units. This is not to say that other activities, such as conscientisation programmes, the creation of popular organisations, use of media such as TV and radio, and cultural activities are to be given less importance.

In addition to the assumptions already stated, the matrix suffers from other limitations as well, the most important being the fact that the process described in it refers only to the quantitative aspects and tends to exclude the qualitative aspect. However, attempting a range definition rather than a point definition and providing the quantitative presentation may aid educational planners in viewing literacy and post-literacy as a continuum and in developing relevant post-literacy programmes, given a certain literacy level. The matrix may not exactly correspond to any country, but the process indicated in it may serve a purpose when actual plans are being prepared.

4. A RESUME FOR PLANNERS

Those responsible for the planning of universal primary education (UPE) have not begun to incorporate continuing education programmes into the principal programme. Consequently, after children complete the primary stage, they may either remain in the channel of formal education, or develop their basic education skills on their own. In fact, in educational systems in Third World countries, the children are either pushed out well before they complete secondary education, or their achievements are so low and opportunities for continuing education so scarce that the primary education they have acquired is of little use. As far as post-literacy is concerned, this is seen as a second stage in the planning of literacy campaigns. It is not always recognised that, since the literacy campaigns have to continue for several years (leaving aside countries like Cuba and Nicaragua, which have comparatively small populations) literacy and post-literacy programmes have to proceed side by side. Therefore, from the point of view of planning, post-literacy should be seen as an integral part of literacy, rather than an adjunct.

It must be realised that no type of programme, no particular medium, is essentially better than another, and all those venturing to organise these programmes must do so with the greatest humility, in a spirit of exploration and adventure. This much seems certain: the possibilities of what can be done are so vast and so momentous that no single medium can do them full justice - efforts must be made to use the various media in such a manner that a new system of learning is created.

The organisation of research has to form part of the planners' responsibilities. Post-literacy of the kind referred to in this paper provides an unlimited scope for research. An immediate need is for preparation of good case studies of existing programmes; with two requisite modifications for the respective countries, these programmes could serve as models, as well as providing material for discussion. Another important area which calls for urgent attention is a study of the retention and use of basic educational skills. It is not improbable that research on this subject would induce those responsible for educational policy and planning to take a fresh look at their assumptions regarding UPE and adult literacy. Such research might reveal that, the way these programmes are presently organised, they make only a marginal difference to the status of the poor and educationally deprived. This may lead to a search for more effective and relevant programming and to concentration on post-literacy. Still other areas which call for the attention of researchers are group learning and the interrelationship between cognitive learning and action. There is a tendency among educational planners to emphasise group learning (e.g. an adult education centre or a learning group in nonformal education); to what extent is this justified? Also, it is stressed that learning should lead to action, but what is the actual relationship between the two? What type of learning environment is most likely to lead the learners to action, and so on?

The path from rather unsatisfactory basic education to systematic arrangements for lifelong learning may seem the vision of an idealist. However, the fruitfulness of the programmes of universal primary education and adult literacy depend upon the realisation of this vision. The stakes are high; for we are talking about nothing less than the transformation of the way of life of the people, giving to them a new dignity and the hope of a new world.

Appendix 4.1. Average Annual Growth Rate of Enrolment in Primary Education in Selected Developing Countries

Country	Latest year	First level enrolment			Average annual growth rate (%)			Gross enrolment ratio		
		1960	1970	Latest year	1960 to 1970	1970 to latest year	1960 to latest year	1960	1970	Latest year
Bangladesh	1979	-	5 283 787	8 219 313	-	5.03	-	-	52	67 (1978)
Botswana	1979	36 237	83 002	156 664	8.63	7.31	8.00	36	64	93 (1979)
Brazil	1977	7 477 053	12 812 029	20 566 760	5.53	7.00	6.13	100	125	88 (1976)
Burma	1977	1 601 299	3 177 739	3 711 464	7.09	2.24	5.07	56	87	84 (1977)
Colombia	1979	1 690 361	3 286 052	4 337 607	6.87	3.13	5.08	77	103	124 (1978)
Cuba	1979	1 029 963	1 530 376	1 550 323	4.04	0.14	2.18	107	121	122 (1976)
Egypt	1979	2 663 247	3 794 911	4 434 557[1]	3.60	1.75	2.72	66	72	75 (1979)
Ethiopia	1979	250 459	655 427	1 811 251	10.10	11.96	10.97	7	17	36 (1979)
India	1977	32 459 000[2-3]	57 045 441	69 749 657	5.80	2.91	4.60	42	73	79 (1979)
Indonesia	1978	8 955 098	14 870 220	22 024 819	5.20	5.03	5.13	60	78	94 (1978)
Iraq	1979	760 463	1 098 865	2 609 182	3.75	10.09	8.70	67	69	117 (1978)
Jamaica	1978	247 983	376 075	370 516	4.25	0.19	2.26	100	119	98 (1977)
Kenya	1978	781 295	1 427 589	3 232 000[3]	6.21	10.75	8.20	47	60	99 (1978)
Mali	1978	64 902	203 703	293 227	12.12	4.66	8.74	10	24	28 (1978)
Nepal	1979	124 921	389 825	1 012 530	12.05	11.19	11.64	10	26	69 (1979)
Nicaragua	1979	162 330	285 285	363 781	5.80	2.80	4.34	67	83	85 (1978)
Nigeria	1977	2 912 617	3 515 827	9 485 300[3]	1.90	15.23	7.19	42	37	79 (1977)
Somalia	1979	22 900	42 700	271 139	6.43	22.80	13.89	7	8	50 (1979)
Sudan	1979	343 500	825 620	1 427 959	9.17	6.28	7.79	20	38	52 (1979)
Tanzania	1980	545 300	922 083	3 359 966	5.39	13.80	9.52	31	39	100 (1979)
Venezuela	1979	1 222 978	1 769 680	2 456 203	3.76	3.71	3.74	100	94	108 (1978)
Vietnam	1979	-	7 092 421[4]	7 923 495	-	1.24	-	-	-	122 (1977)
Zambia	1979	287 536	694 670	980 406[3]	9.22	3.90	6.67	42	91	98 (1976)
Zimbabwe	1976	494 000	736 508	883 059	4.07	3.07	3.70	102	100	97 (1976)

[1] Excluding Al Azhar University [2] Enrolment I to VII [3] Estimate [4] Data for N+5

Source: Paris, Unesco, Office of Statistics

Appendix 4.2 Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Level of Education in Selected Developing Countries

Country	Latest year	Enrolment in the first grade of the second level			Enrolment in the last grade of the first level			Transition rate			Remarks
		1970	1975	Latest year	1970	1975	Latest year	1970	1975	Latest year	
Bangladesh	1978	-	605 233	625 610	552 238	1 080 583[1]	989 129	-	56.0	63.2	1=1976
Botswana	1979	2 909[1]	4 295	5 449	6 913	14 449	18 319	42.1	29.7	29.7	1=1973
Brazil	1977	791 203[1]	834 324[1]	984 362[1]	2 127 476	980 109	1 051 767	37.2	85.1	93.6	1=NET
Burma	1977	172 881[1]	238 845	237 438	320 670	338 492	387 855	53.9	70.6	61.2	1=NET
Colombia	1979	262 567	327 566	461 215	309 743	426 207	477 137	84.8	76.9	96.7	
Cuba	1978	63 971[1]	150 600	252 094[1]	124 135	240 353	278 627	54.0	62.7	90.5	1=NET
Egypt	1979	310 148	479 795[1]	439 689[1]	541 948	673 305	609 365	52.7	71.3	72.2	1=NET
Ethiopia	1979	39 947	76 587[1]	103 417	68 706	98 891	132 573	58.1	77.4	78.0	
India	1977	5 329 260[1]	6 268 389	6 888 723	6 623 731[1]	7 848 656	8 619 679	80.5	79.9	79.9	1=NET
Indonesia	1978	376 800	606 938	875 176	1 348 755[1]	1 594 727	1 974 898	27.9	38.1	44.3	
Iraq	1979	61 117[1]	125 664[2]	285 576	121 474	186 296	296 121	50.3	67.5	96.4	1='72/2=NET
Jamaica	1978	47 816	53 918	58 107	n.a.	51 805	55 667	-	104.1	104.3	
Kenya	1977	41 043	73 690	106 496[1]	163 851	227 439	237 140[1]	25.0	37.4	44.9	
Mali	1977	6 529[1]	12 286[1]	20 504[2]	22 072	23 797	30 478[3]	29.6	51.6	67.3	1=NET/2='77
Nepal	1979	30 785	96 357[1]	129 434	n.a.	109 196	190 372	-	63.5	68.0	1='76/3='78
Nicaragua	1978	16 270	23 034	26 849	18 023	26 640[1]	28 350	90.3	86.5	84.7	1=1976
Nigeria	1977	96 045	n.a.	134 766	63 278	n.a.	53 581[1]	154.2	-	251.5	1=1973
Somalia	1979	5 573	2 076	7 198	7 164	10 472	35 930	77.8	19.8	20.0	1=1976
Sudan	1979	34 496[1]	78 027	84 319	42 045	158 151	190 898	87.0	49.3	44.2	1=NET
Tanzania	1979	10 393	13 700	17 239	71 213	157 090	197 261	14.6	8.7	8.7	
Venezuela	1979	97 144	196 444[1]	226 455[1]	179 799	240 201	270 182	54.0	81.8	83.8	1=NET
Vietnam	1979	n.a.	1 001 269	1 105 433	n.a.	1 100 203[1]	1 229 728	-	90.3	89.9	1=1976
Zambia	1979	15 175	21 462	23 261	67 222	99 693	124 002	22.6	21.5	18.8	
Zimbabwe	n.a.	n.a.	-	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	

NET = Excluding repeaters

Source: Paris: Unesco, Office of Statistics

Appendix 4.3 Survival in Primary Education in Selected Developing Countries (latest year available)

Country	Cohort starting in	Proportion of cohorts reaching grade								
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Bangladesh	1974	1000	433	323	248	189	-	-	-	-
Botswana	1977	1000	968	947	896	845	779	748	-	-
Brazil	1973	1000	543	462	394	350	304	291	280	-
Burma	1972	1000	865	640	461	321	-	-	-	-
Colombia	1973	1000	686	559	408	371	-	-	-	-
Cuba	1975	1000	967	740	917	876	832	-	-	-
Egypt	1976	1000	954	936	911	857	792	-	-	-
India	1969	1000	677	567	481	411	-	-	-	-
Indonesia	1977	1000	981	956	898	827	775	-	-	-
Iraq	1977	1000	979	973	973	962	933	-	-	-
Jamaica	1975	1000	1000	997	958	881	745	-	-	-
Kenya	1976	1000	857	802	688	616	573	523	-	-
Mali	1977	1000	901	851	785	691	608	-	-	-
Nicaragua	1977	1000	587	482	400	327	278	-	-	-
Sudan	1970	1000	981	933	916	894	750	-	-	-
Tanzania	1974	1000	963	938	897	859	841	841	-	-
Zambia	1975	1000	1000	1000	991	815	815	803	-	-

Source: Paris: Unesco, Office of Statistics

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CHAPTER 5

SOME CURRICULAR ASPECTS OF POST-LITERACY AND CONTINUING EDUCATION OF NEO-LITERATES

BY H.S. BHOLA

INTRODUCTION

The challenges facing planners of literacy, post-literacy, and lifelong education in the 1980s are complex. The tide of illiteracy must be stemmed. The more than 815 million illiterates in the age group 15 years and older alive today , most of them in the Third World, must be made literate. Neo-literates (new literates, or the newly literate, as they are also called) of all ages must be enabled through suitable post-literacy and continuing education programmes to retain and strengthen their literacy skills. Lastly, and most importantly, all readers - young and old, male and female, those graduating from schools, and those coming out of adult literacy classes - must be enabled to apply their literacy to personal growth, economic advancement, political participation and social innovation.

The neo-literate today is neither a hypothetical creature nor a figment of the literacy planner's imagination. Elementary and secondary schools are producing armies of "school leavers" who need to be served through appropriate continuing education programmes. Adult literacy programmes and various nonformal education projects for adult men and women are now producing multitudes of neo-literates who have urgent informational and educational needs which must be met through well-defined post-literacy programmes.

1. THE EXTENT AND COMPLEXITY OF CURRICULAR ISSUES IN POST-LITERACY AND CONTINUING EDUCATION OF NEO-LITERATES

The curriculum development approach provides a useful perspective for an analysis of the means and ends involved in the provision of post-literacy and continuing education programmes for neo-literates. Indeed, these programmes will be experienced by neo-literate adults as curriculum and curriculum materials. Curriculum development is therefore central.

Curriculum development also provides a significant perspective for those working in post-literacy and continuing education. In the out-of-school settings of post-literacy and continuing education programmes, curriculum implementation is inseparable from curriculum development. Post-literacy workers have to do a great deal of curriculum development in local settings in order to serve specific local needs. Normative, pedagogical, institutional and technological issues are involved. Therein lies the challenge of curriculum development in post-literacy and continuing education in the perspective of lifelong education.

In Table 12, we have displayed in the left-hand column the typical dimensions of the curriculum development process identified by curriculum specialists; in the right-hand column we have listed the instructional structures, learning strategies, instructional media, techniques, and materials that must, typically, be part of the concern of those planning post-literacy and continuing education programmes. A simple process of permutations and combinations between the two lists should indicate the enormity and complexity of curricular issues involved in the area.

As indicated earlier, the curriculum development questions are at the same time normative, pedagogical, institutional and technological. The dimensions A to E in the left-hand column in Table 12 relate to the structures, strategies, media, techniques and materials listed in the right-hand column in many different and special ways. Take the example of newspapers. Questions are many: Is it the intention to create a "newspaper with rural interest" in order to assist the rural masses in relating to the outside world? Or is the objective to create a "rural newspaper" which is a community newspaper and which enables rural communities to define their own realities in their own terms and thereby become at once creators and consumers of information? Or is

Table 12 Dimensions of the Curriculum Development Process and Learning Strategies for Post-literacy

Dimensions of the curriculum development process	Structures, strategies, media, techniques, and materials for post-literacy and continuing education of neo-literates
A. Objectives (obtained on the basis of needs negotiation between the development elite and community leaders)	1. Newspapers, journals, leaflets, wall-newspapers, newsletters, etc.
B. Institutional and social arrangements for the delivery of curriculum	2. Textbooks and other textual materials
C. Learners, teachers and other curriculum leaders	3. Supplementary and follow-up reading materials
D. Content, methods, materials, activities, and settings	4. Libraries
E. Evaluation and the socio-cultural interpretation of instruction	5. Extension literature
	6. Out-of-school programmes parallel to the school system and other nonformal courses and programmes
	7. Occasional programmes based on special needs and interests
	8. Correspondence courses
	9. Local study and action groups
	10. Instructional television, radio, film and other new educational technology
	11. Traditional and folk media
	12. Sports, games and physical culture

it intended to do both at the same time? At another level, curricular issues in regard to the newspaper acquire a more technical definition: How is each single issue of a newspaper to be designed as one comprehensive but coherent, interesting but balanced message system? How is news to be made topical and educational at the same time?

[illegible] and extension materials for use in post-literacy and continuing education programmes will generate the usual array of questions relating to the design and writing of textbooks and textual materials for the formal education system. However, the production of *extension materials* may be examined further in the light of the following questions: How to develop extension literature that does not merely bring to the farming communities scientific knowledge from the outside, but also codifies the existing, contextual and well-tested knowledge in use within farming communities? How to use the literature among communities to ensure utilisation of printed extension materials by the illiterate? How to make sure that extension literature does address itself to the needs of the poorest of the poor and reaches them as well? These are some significant questions, although they do not, by any means, exhaust all possible curricular issues involved in the use of textbooks, textual materials and extension literature.

Writing *follow-up books* is, again, not merely a matter of the choice of development topics, of decisions regarding the selection and treatment of the content, and of readability controls in the elaboration of manuscripts. Important curricular decisions will need to be made at the level of overall programme development. What will the follow-up books seek to do as one element in a development support communication system, or as tools of a learning society? Will these books help neo-literates primarily in the retention of literacy skills? Will these teach developmental skills, or will these be broadly educational? Will these books be seen as tools for a "second socialisation"? If so, should series of books be built around a model character or a model family with which readers can identify? What should that model character or model family be like?

In the general area of *second chance education* and *correspondence education* (also called "distance education"), the curriculum development problems go beyond those found in these sectors within the formal education system. The role of the teacher in the society in question may have to be changed significantly. The typical teacher of children may have to become a teacher to the community - to serve both children and adults. He or she may now become an animator or community developer. New instructional roles may have to be invented, and future incumbents may have to be socialised into performing these new roles. New patterns of time allocation in schools, in terms of the total durations of courses and daily timetables, may have to be devised. Work and study combinations may have to be conceptualised and implemented. New technologies for the delivery of instruction will have to be utilised to serve diverse interest groups to meet instructional needs as they arise. And this list certainly does not exhaust all curricular issues.

For a long time, libraries in support of post-literacy and continuing education programmes in the Third World will have to be *rural libraries*. The curricular challenges here are many: to conceive and nurture the image of a small library - sometimes with a collection of no more than fifty books in a box; to plan for libraries that move on bicycles, on horseback and in boats; and to recruit social activists as librarians - people who could serve as the vanguard of a grass-roots communications revolution. At a more programmatic level, the small collections of reading material in rural libraries will have to be developed with care and foresight; a logistical system will have to be developed to replenish the initial stocks in these small libraries; and, most importantly, books will have to make news in communities, and new literates will have to be transformed into committed readers.

The use of *radio* in post-literacy and continuing education programmes provides considerable innovative possibilities. What is whispered in the nation's ears, day after day, has important consequences. The impact of radio can be strengthened by developing programmes for specialised groups - children, women, farmers, miners, and so on. Radio characters and families can be and have been offered to listeners as sources of identification and emulation. More recently, radio campaigns on developmental themes have been tried with considerable success in Tanzania, Botswana, and elsewhere. They have used specially written extension literature and integrated reading materials, and have linked up with specially created local *study and action groups*. They have also used the *folk media* of song and rural drama to communicate their messages and, at the same time, to tap the creative resources of the masses they have sought to serve. This is the ground, however, upon which a curriculum developer must tread softly and with care. One has to make sure that folk media do not get subverted through the development elite using them for their own narrowly-conceived objectives.

The use of *games and* [illegible] in post-literacy and continuing education programmes is a relatively new phenomenon, but one that is pregnant with possibilities.

The preceding list of curricular issues and questions is by no means exhaustive. It is simply a sampling of useful questions for discussion. It is, however, impossible to discuss within the scope of this short paper all of the possible curricular issues. A choice has been made of four issues using the two general criteria of *broad applicability* and *practical significance*.

The issues chosen have *broad applicability* to programmes, projects, structures, strategies, media, techniques and materials. These issues are also general enough to have relevance to countries and communities with different political contexts and systems of initiative and action.

The issues chosen also have *practical significance*. A discussion of these issues will therefore increase the likelihood of contributing to the design of programmes and projects of post-literacy and continuing education in the real world.

The following issues, in our judgement, meet the two criteria of *broad applicability* and *practical significance* and will, therefore, be discussed below:

(1) the definition and development of curriculum agendas for post-literacy and continuing education of neo-literates;

(2) the development of a system for curriculum implementation and for the delivery of instruction;

(3) the organisation of curriculum content into programmes, projects, courses, structured experiences, modules, materials, units and lessons; and

(4) the validation of the choice of curriculum objectives and content, as well as of the organisation of content by using participative strategies.

2. THE VALUE FRAMEWORK OF DISCUSSION AND SOME ASSUMPTIONS

Much too often, discussions of post-literacy and continuing education programmes get linked too directly - and, perhaps, too narrowly - with merely developmental concerns of an immediate nature. The broader objectives of lifelong education and citizenship in a world community are forgotten. It is important, therefore, for a curriculum planner of post-literacy and continuing education programmes that, in addition to meeting the immediate developmental and instrumental concerns of neo-literates, he or she makes provision for teaching universal values, generalised abilities, and aspects of art, science, technology, communication, citizenship, and human relations. Post-literacy work must always receive a progressive definition. The focus must always be on empowering the people. The culture of silence must be shattered. People must be taught to speak for themselves.

Fortunately, the educational context of nonformal education (post-literacy and continuing education) is now appearing in broader relief. It is now becoming quite clear that it is the nonformal sector of education that has to be looked to in solving the quantitative problems of meeting the rapidly expanding educational needs of the previously neglected groups, groups which have only now been discovered by our egalitarian ideologies. Educational disparities have to be removed. Yet rising educational costs render traditional solutions useless. Innovative solutions are needed that are both efficient and effective in providing education that is at once culturally relevant and economically productive. Nonformal education has to be a part of this set of solutions.

Post-literacy and continuing education together must, then, be considered an equal partner in the total national enterprise of education, if not the more important partner. Nonformal education must not be considered a poor relation of formal education and must not be conceptualised merely in an ameliorative role. Educators working in the areas of post-literacy and continuing education need a transvaluation of values: They need to develop enough pride to counter the not so rare arrogance of some of those working in formal education!

The following discussion of curricular problems and proposed solutions in the area of post-literacy and continuing education should be viewed as relative. It should be understood that each country or political system will have to define its curricular problems within a specific policy matrix and at a particular historical time, and will have to find solutions within that same policy matrix and in relation to the available resources. There will have to be developments of new institutions and instructional roles, adaptations of what has been done elsewhere, new objectives for old structures, new departures in modes of planning and delivery of instruction, and discoveries in modes of teaching, participation, and evaluation.

The value of passion and the need of a sense of mission in the promotion of post-literacy and continuing education must also be clearly understood. Effective planning and management will be necessary, but by no means sufficient. Mobilisation strategies must be undertaken to release and sustain the creative energies of the people and their potential to help themselves.

It is now well understood that those who need education the most are often the most disadvantaged with regard to pursuing it. Women and the poorest of the poor are the hardest for development workers to reach. Unless special post-literacy and continuing education programmes are organised for these groups, and unless special efforts are made to reach and serve them, their disadvantage will be compounded.

Post-literacy and continuing education programmes can use different kinds of media: pre-print media (folk media, for example); print media; and non-print media (electronic media, such as radio and television). When the folk media or the electronic media are used in post-literacy and continuing education programmes, both the neo-literate and the illiterate can be served. While we do not suggest that the illiterate be deliberately excluded from these programmes, we do propose that programmes be premised on *literacy*: our programme designs must assume that our clients are literate, and we must provide, whenever and wherever possible, opportunities for our primary clients, i.e. neo-literates, to use their literacy skills and thereby strengthen those skills. In addition, our designs may accomodate those illiterate and semi-literate who may want to participate. One approach, for example, may be to make reading a collective experience where the literate read aloud and discussions follow in which everyone - literate, semi-literate, and illiterate - participates.

Finally, we would like to emphasise the value of participation of individuals and groups, placed horizontally and vertically, in relation to each other. Participation should be generated at all stages of needs assessment, curriculum planning, curriculum implementation, materials production, and evaluation.

Let us now discuss the four curricular issues we have chosen for their broad applicability and practical significance.

3. THE DEFINITION AND DEVELOPMENT OF CURRICULUM AGENDAS FOR POST-LITERACY AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

The curricular agenda of a national (or of a large-scale regional) programme for post-literacy and continuing education must be generated, at one level, within the developmental context of the nation; and, at another level, within the perspective of lifelong education seeking to teach traditional cultural values, modern scientific values, and universal human values.

First and foremost, the cultural realities and the overall developmental vision of the nation must be reflected in the general aims and objectives of the curriculum for post-literacy and continuing education programmes. The overall developmental strategy - be it *self-reliance*, *harambee*, or *collectivism* - must be reflected, again, in curriculum choices and in the delivery of instruction. Curriculum development is not merely an educational-technical question; curriculum is determined by the prevailing ideology, the existing political economy, history, demography, ethnic and linguistic realities, and by the level of technology and resources available.

The concept of post-literacy was born when it was found that adults, once made literate in literacy classes, did not always stay literate. Most of them had nothing to read after graduating from literacy classes and had no opportunities to make use of their newly acquired literacy skills. Literacy was lost through disuse.

The need for post-literacy work became more than obvious. Unfortunately, post-literacy needs were conceptualised too narrowly for too long by too many literacy workers. The problem was defined merely in terms of the provision of specially written reading materials for neo-literates. The larger systemic perspective was absent. No thought was given to developing interfaces between literacy and other educational structures, nor to establishing functional links between literacy, on the one hand, and social, economic and political structures, on the other.

In the context of lifelong education, the total array of programme and curriculum needs in the post-literacy stages can be represented in terms of four categories:

- literacy retention,

- [illegible] (formal) [illegible]

- *systemic integration of literacy within social, economic and political structures, and*
- *socialization for an ideal society.*

The point also needs to be made that we have to plan our post-literacy programmes not only for the "graduates" of literacy classes, but also for school-leavers and other old and new reading publics. We need to orient our programmes to serve the needs of both men and women, in rural as well as urban areas.

A few explanatory comments are in order on the model illustrated on the next page.

3.1 Programmes for Literacy Retention

It is within this particular sector of post-literacy programming that literacy workers have had the longest experience. The essential objectives have been

(1) to write and publish books of interest to new readers,

(2) to write these books in a language that will be understood by new readers (with their limited literacy skills), and

(3) to put these books in the hands of the readers.

The list of innovative initiatives that have already been undertaken all over the world, is impressive. This list includes competitions with prizes to provide incentives for writers and publishers; workshops to train writers and produce manuscripts; programmes to encourage readers to write books for other readers; village newspapers written and produced by the communities themselves; a special page for new readers appearing regularly in national or regional dailies; mobile and market-day libraries to take books to readers wherever they may be; and reading circles to help new readers to stay in groups for reading, discussion, and subsequent community action.

3.2 Second Chance Formal Education

This sector of post-literacy and continuing education programming, unhappily, has been marked by contradiction and confusion. Literacy planners, in many developing countries, have sought unsuccessfully to break the link between literacy and certified schooling. They have pleaded that literacy be valued in its own terms and put to immediate use in life and work. They

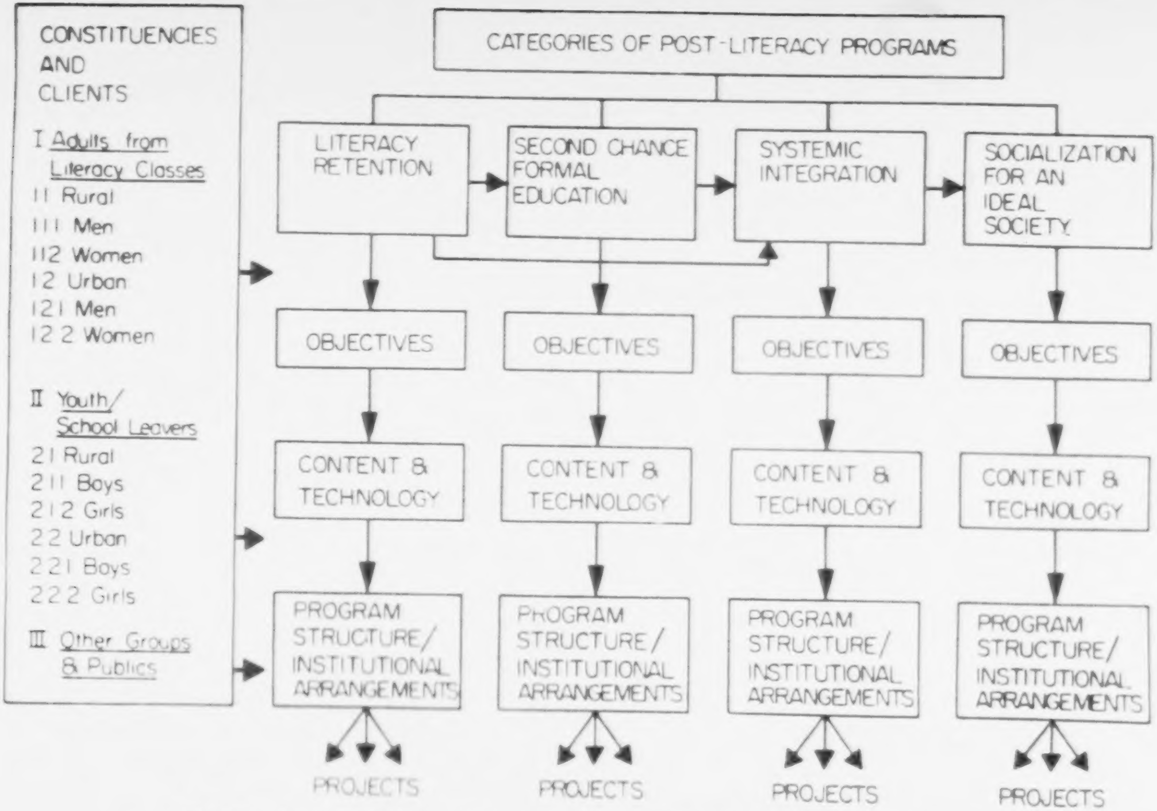

CONSTITUENCIES AND CLIENTS
I Adults from Literacy Classes
11 Rural
111 Men
112 Women
12 Urban
121 Men
122 Women
II Youth/ School Leavers
21 Rural
211 Boys
212 Girls
22 Urban
221 Boys
222 Girls
III Other Groups & Publics
CATEGORIES OF POST-LITERACY PROGRAMS
LITERACY RETENTION
SECOND CHANCE FORMAL EDUCATION
SYSTEMIC INTEGRATION
SOCIALIZATION FOR AN IDEAL SOCIETY
OBJECTIVES
OBJECTIVES
OBJECTIVES
OBJECTIVES
CONTENT & TECHNOLOGY
CONTENT & TECHNOLOGY
CONTENT & TECHNOLOGY
CONTENT & TECHNOLOGY
PROGRAM STRUCTURE/ INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS
PROGRAM STRUCTURE/ INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS
PROGRAM STRUCTURE/ INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS
PROGRAM STRUCTURE/ INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS
PROJECTS
PROJECTS
PROJECTS
PROJECTS

Figure 8: **A model for conceptualizing the needs and scope of curriculum and program development in the post-literacy stages (Bhola, 1980)**

have warned against viewing literacy as a side-door entry into the formal education system, with the ultimate hope of finding a job in the formal sector of the economy or somewhere within government.

Neo-literates, however, have not always shared this view. They have known what advantages certified schooling has brought to those who have been able to enter and then make it through the system of formal education. On the other hand, they have been keenly aware of their own deprivation and neglect at the hands of governments. Typically, governments have responded with half-measures. To relieve immediate pressures, some programmes of elementary education for adults have been established as part of correspondence or distance education programmes. But the problem has not always been met head-on. No programmes have been developed to promote the immediate use of literacy skills in life and work, and no counselling is available for those who are intent on making an entry into formal education, whatever the cost.

Various socialist countries (China, Cuba, Vietnam and North Korea) have sought to create two parallel systems of formal education: one for children and youth, and another for adult men and women in the work force. Literacy classes have been seen as moves of entry into this second-chance formal education, which may take the adult through secondary education, even to technical and liberal education at university level.

3.3 Systemic Integration between Literacy and Development Objectives

This is a sector of greatest need and, perhaps, also of greatest neglect. Literacy planners need to be good systematic thinkers and planners. On the one hand, post-literacy programmes have to be made *functional* by including political education, economic education, and social and life skills. On the other hand, development programmes and actions have to be *lettered*; that is, literacy has to be made central to their planning, organisation and implementation. This sector needs a lot of attention, as we have indicated earlier, but it is also an area which admits of considerable experimentation and innovation. A caution must be voiced, however. In making literacy "functional" and functions "lettered", we must not further inhibit the participation of the illiterate in decision-making in their communities and thereby unwittingly contribute to their further disenfranchisement.

3.4 Socialisation for an Ideal Society

This sector of post-literacy and continuing education programming is, again, most significant, and yet another which suffers from considerable neglect. Some of the objectives are as obvious as they are urgent, among them: the need to help the newly literate become independent learners and critical consumers of information; to teach them mass-media appreciation in order to contribute to their technological awareness; to promote their understanding of the new international order; and to commit them to protecting the human environment. This is a sector where literacy workers can choose from a multiplicity of media - big media, small media, and folk media.

The process of "agenda setting" in curriculum planning and development for post-literacy and continuing education (as in all other development sectors) is, and has to be, a *political* process. In each country, there exist particular social demands for education. These demands will have to be mediated by political figures, among them educational policy makers and some high-level educational planners. This mediation will result in a national agenda for education leading to post-literacy and continuing education. But the curriculum planner and developer does not have to be outside the process and wait for an educational agenda to be given to him or her. The curriculum planner and developer must rather assist in the process by defining and clarifying educational needs in relation to the predominant national vision and the already established development needs; he or she must articulate available choices and show what the consequences of the various choices might be. This the curriculum planner and developer can do, if the choices to be made are seen clearly, and if the possibilities of their realisation are well understood.

4. DESIGNING SYSTEMS FOR CURRICULUM DELIVERY AND IMPLEMENTATION

The curriculum developer and planner in the area of post-literacy and continuing education has, among other things, to be adept at institutionalising, i.e. inventing *roles* and *rules* for relating those roles within a social system. In formal education, we have well-established instructional roles, e.g. the teacher, the counsellor, the headmaster, the inspector. We also have well-established and familiar institutions such as the school and the university. We do not have any such well-established and familiar roles and institutions in post-literacy and continuing education. Indeed, the ability to design instructional roles and delivery systems *ad hoc* is the special strength of nonformal education. This is not to say that nonformal education should never be institutionalised, or that instructional roles in the area of post-literacy should never become both permanent and familiar; whatever needs to be done systematically and with the hope for continuity, needs an institution. What we are suggesting, then, is that instructional roles in the area of post-literacy and continuing education should be *flexible*, and that institutions in this area be highly *responsive*.

It is not possible within the scope of this short paper to develop a detailed and systematic primer on institution building. Only some general principles can be stated.

4.1 Design of Instructional Roles

First and foremost, it is important for the curriculum developer to understand that the design of instructional roles is more than the process of inventing new designations within a particular bureaucratic setting. The future incumbent will have to perform various tasks within various social settings and interface with roles already existing within the system - on the one hand, his or her own role as husband or wife; and, on the other hand, the network of roles within the organisation and the community.

The curriculum developer must, therefore, ensure that:

- a complete inventory of all necessary instructional tasks has been developed;
- these instructional tasks have been organised in appropriate hierarchies and combined into profiles that suit the logic of the tasks, and are, at the same time, socially acceptable; and
- the best possible combination of the role and the recruit will be made.

The role designs, as well as the allocation of tasks to various roles should, however, be kept deliberately general. This has to be done to make later on-the-job role negotiations possible. It is only through such role negotiation and experimentation with roles that it will be possible to make the best use of individual capacities and creativities (or shortcomings) of role incumbents and to meet unanticipated educational needs within different social settings.

4.2 Design of Delivery Systems

In some aspects of post-literacy programmes, such as second chance formal education, the solutions for the delivery of instruction may not differ greatly from those in use within the formal education system. Part-time schools may be developed parallel to the formal schools, using similar teaching roles and following similar patterns of instruction. However, in other post-literacy programmes that cannot be formalised, either in content or in delivery, the problems are enormous. In facing those challenges, we suggest that the organisations for delivery of nonformal education will have to have the following characteristics:

Comprehensiveness and extensiveness

The institutional arrangements designed for the delivery of post-literacy and continuing education programmes should be both comprehensive and extensive. These should integrate all the different levels of decision making and should cover the whole of a society in order to serve the needs of different clients and constituencies.

Stability and vitality

The institutional arrangements should be more or less permanent and should become the backbone of the delivery of all kinds of instructional services to people who need them. These institutions should be provided with the best of leadership in order to lend them the energy and vitality that they will surely require.

Parsimony and salience

Another important feature of the post-literacy and continuing education institutions should be *parsimony*. A few institutions, if not one single institution, should provide the focus for *all* educational, informational and training needs of youth and adult clients, rather than a multiplicity of institutions that fragment delivery and compete for attention and credit. It should be possible to provide services in agricultural, co-operative, nutrition and family-life education; in literacy work and post-literacy discussion groups; in vocational education and training - all under the aegis of the same one nonformal educational institution at the community level. Such an institution will become a mechanism for the integration of services from various ministries and departments. At the same time, it will become a salient institution in the lives of the people. Communities will begin to look to such an institution for all their educational and training needs.

Brazil's Cultural Posts perhaps, and Tanzania's Folk Development Colleges provide the rudiments of such parsimonious institutional structures. The Learning Resource Centres (LRC's) design, offered by the author elsewhere, can serve such needs admirably. (1)

Responsiveness and enabling role

Institutions for post-literacy and continuing education should be responsive; they should be basically enabling institutions. The characteristics of comprehensiveness, extensiveness, stability, parsimony, and salience will require a strong institutional framework. However, this *sturdy organizational structure* must be paired with a *soft programmatic dynamic*. This will enable the institution to respond to needs as they arise, and, through a flexibility of roles and programme design, to be able to fit its services to special circumstances. In most cases, these institutions should merely *enable* people and communities to pursue their developmental goals, rather than initiate and administer programmes on their behalf.

Outreach and multi-modality

Institutions for post-literacy and continuing education cannot wait for their clients to come to them. They must reach out and go where the clients are: to their homes, fields, and places to work. This may mean, in one case, the establishment of bicycle libraries; in another case, the use of mobile cinema vans. Outreach is not merely a physical construct on wheels! It is a programmatic concept which can be actualised in many different modalities. Technology has made it possible today to do what is needed. Some of those modalities will have to be information-based. Useful information will have to be packaged in the form of learning resources and these will have to become important links to the delivery process. Some of the manifestations of this organisational approach will be reading circles, discussion forums, flexi-study and drop-in provisions, with both self-learning and inter-learning.

Open System boundaries and dynamic inclusion of clients into the system

The institutions of post-literacy and continuing education must function as open systems and must have flexible boundaries. This means that these institutions must make possible a dynamic inclusion of its clients into the system: the clients must not merely interact with the institution; they must be able to contribute to its goals and objectives, its approaches and strategies, adapting them to their own purposes, needs, and communal patterns. This will, of course, mean provision for participation in planning, implementation and evaluation.

5. THE ORGANISATION OF CURRICULUM CONTENT

The term organisation is used here to mean the choice, treatment, and assembling of curricular elements to form a whole with focused objectives. All the different programme structures, project strategies, educational media and techniques, as well as instructional materials such as courses, activities and experiences, modules, units, and lessons will have to have a particular *organisation* to become effective instruments of education in post-literacy and continuing education programmes. Once again, only the most general principles of curriculum organisation can be discussed within the scope of this paper.

In post-literacy and continuing education, and in nonformal education in general, curriculum development is a matter both of designing a *course of study* and a *course of action*. What this means is that there must be an interface between the system of learning and the structures of action. Curriculum planning must relate to developmental strategies and the availability of national resources. In some cases this may mean the choice of selective-intensive approaches rather than a commitment to the delivery of services to the general masses. The curriculum may be tied to more specific and *functional* objectives, rather than being generally educational.

5.1 Curriculum Development as Message-Making

Curriculum development should be seen as a process of message-making. We want the groups of learners to learn and internalise the messages included in the curriculum. Once such a conceptualisation of the process of curriculum development is accepted, various general principles follow:

(1) *The need for the clarity of purpose*

The purpose of the message should be clear and appropriately articulated. Is the purpose to impart information? Is it to persuade? Or is it to work for a more systematic change of attitude and values? Is it part of the purpose to create opportunities for expressive behaviour within collective settings? Is the purpose to resocialise? Are the process outcomes of instruction as important as product outcomes? Is the learner supposed to act on the newly acquired information? Different sets of intentions will demand different approaches when deciding on content, its treatment, and its assembling for presentation to learners and teachers.

(2) *Starting where the learners are*

The curriculum developer must start where the learners are. This means taking into consideration the language situation, as well as the cultural realities of the learners and their communities. The new must be explained in terms of the old: in doing so, the existing use of language and the current cultural knowledge and practices of the communities must not be handled negatively or rejected outright.

(3) *Integration of learning materials*

An important guideline for the curriculum developer is the principle of integration, which can be viewed from many different perspectives:

- inter-programme integration;
- subject matter integration;
- text-media-activity integration; and
- learner materials and teacher materials integration.

The curriculum developer in post-literacy and continuing education cannot afford the insularity of the curriculum developer in the formal educational system. In post-literacy education, all the various educational and developmental programmes in operation within a community or region have to be integrated with each other. The curriculum developer has to become a member of the larger team of agents of change; everyone has to pull in the same direction, reinforcing each other's efforts.

Subject matter integration is a classical problem for the curriculum developer, within both the formal and nonformal sectors of education. The adult learner participating in a programme of post-literacy and continuing education does not have to get his or her information from organised subjects (e.g. *agriculture*, political science, history, health). For the best effects, cognitions and values should be taught at the same time. The learner should be obtaining problem-solving knowledge, not discipline-centred and hierarchically organised knowledge.

There also has to be integration between text and illustrations, and between learning from the text and audio-visual media, on the one hand, and activities - economic, social or political - on the other hand.

Finally, there is the need to achieve an integration between the learning needs of teachers and those of adult learners. Teachers in post-literacy and continuing education can never be fully prepared and have to learn continuously. In many, if not in most situations, the teachers will have to learn along with their learners and act as facilitators of learning within groups. In such a situation, the preparation of proper instructional materials for teachers themselves acquires considerable significance and great urgency. The need to integrate teacher materials with learner materials should thus be obvious.

(4) *Provision for active learning*

The adult learner that we will be dealing with in the post-literacy and continuing education stages must be engaged in active learning. There should be opportunities not only to assimilate information, but also to reflect on it. The organisation of materials should make this possible. The learner should also be provided with opportunities for learning in the context of games and simulations, wherever this is possible.

(5) *Promoting transfer of learning*

The effort to assist in the use of the ideas learned should definitely go beyond their application in simulated situations. The implementer of curriculum in post-literacy stages has to provide the necessary counselling to help the learner put his or her learning to use in the real world; the curriculum developer and implementer in post-literacy and continuing education must have a social commitment, working on behalf of the poor, the disadvantaged, and the excluded.

(6) *Evaluation of curriculum*

Evaluating the process of curriculum development, as well as its implementation, is an important consideration. In the following we will address this problem more fully as a problem of validation through the use of participative strategies.

5.2 The Technology of Curriculum Development

From the preceding discussion of some of the general principles of curriculum development and implementation, we are now ready to proceed to a brief discussion of the technology of curriculum development. Perhaps the term "instructional development" is more appropriate here.

The process of instructional development consists in considering:

- learner characteristics;
- learning tasks; and
- learning environment

at the same time in order to come up with a learning strategy that sequences learning content and assigns teaching tasks appropriate to texts, media, and activities.

In the process of learner analysis, some of the questions to be posed are: In the context of the particular learning settings we are concerned with, what are the characteristics of the learners we will most likely be working with? What is the initial level of the learners' knowledge? What are their attitudes? To which motivational structures could learning be related? What do we know about their learning styles? What might be some of their inhibitions to learning arising from their social status or class? What is the state of their mental and emotional health? What are their value systems? Must any cultural taboos be kept in mind as we design instruction?

In regard to task analysis, the following questions arise: What is the nature of the learning involved? Is it cognitive, affective, psychomotor learning? What is the structure of learning, its logic, its built-in hierarchies? Does the information to be taught form an articulated hierarchy, and must it, therefore, be taught in a well-defined sequence? Could learning be arranged according to some other generative principle? What are the links for the transfer of learning to outside settings? Are those links being made clear?

Finally, an analysis of the learning environment may be conducted in terms of the following questions: What is the physical nature of the learning environment? What is the psychosocial environment? What parts of the environment can be influenced as part of the instructional development design? Which aspects of the environment are not subject to control and have to be lived with? How much of the larger socio-political environment must be taken into consideration?

The concurrent analysis of the learner characteristics, the learning tasks, and of the learning environment can then be used to generate an overall teaching-learning strategy involving a combination of various learning activities (e.g. lectures, discussions, demonstrations, dramatisations, self-study and applications) and a choice of instructional materials ranging from leaflets, posters, and textbooks to wall-newspapers, libraries, folk drama, radio, TV, and micro-computers.

6. VALIDATION OF CURRICULUM CONTENT AND CURRICULUM ORGANISATION: FOCUS ON PARTICIPATION

Throughout this paper, we have been addressing our comments to the "specialist", sitting somewhere at the centre, working for the development elite, or fulfilling the purposes of the state. But what about the people?

In this age of the celebration of individual freedom, community responsibility, and decolonisation (both internal and external), the following are some of the most persistent questions: Who has the right to dream our futures? Who has the right to design our destinies? Who has the right to decide what the people need and what they will get? Who will be our teachers and our leaders? What shall we be taught, and how?

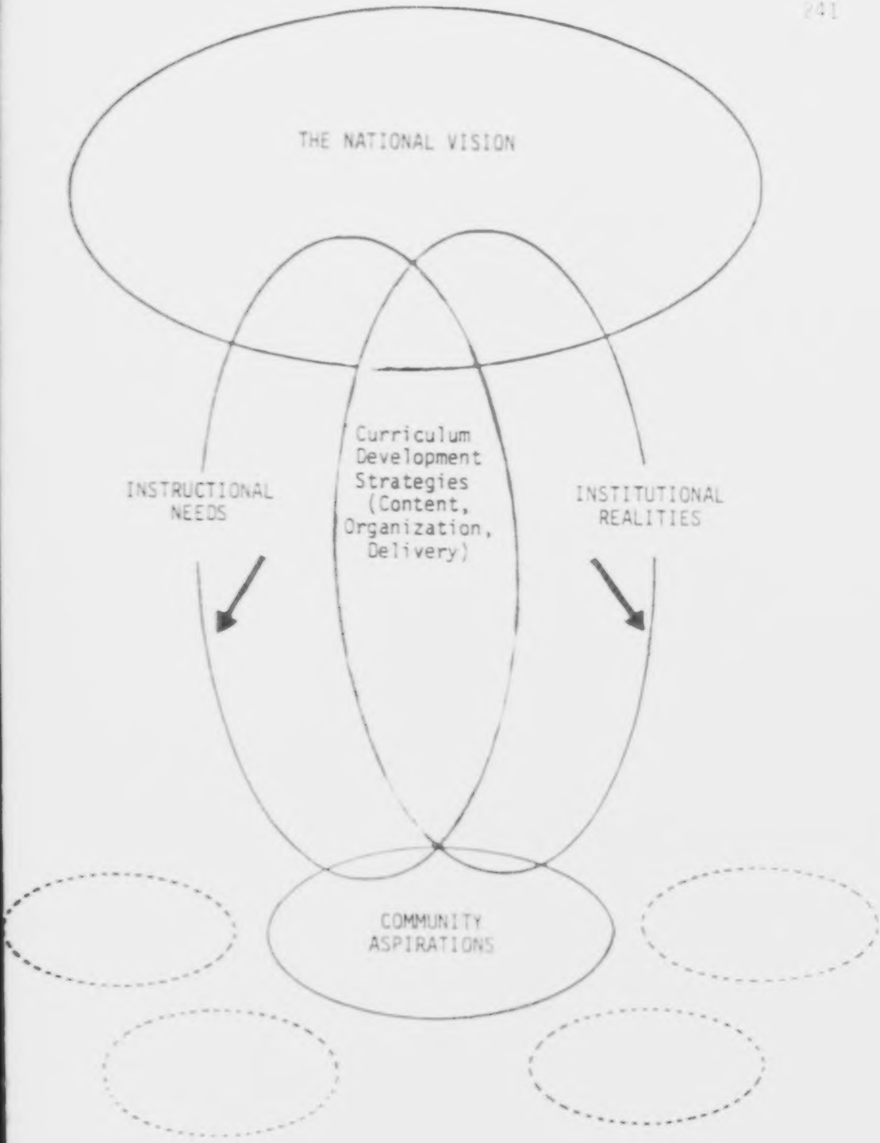
These questions are really age-old questions of moral philosophy, social ethics, political theory, and behavioural technology. Hidden in these questions are the issues of individual needs versus state purposes, elitism versus populism, participation versus representation, centralisation versus decentralisation, and efficiency versus effectiveness.

Much too often, we have failed to reconcile the purposes of the state with the purposes of the people, defined by them in their communities and neighbourhoods. Often, we have behaved as if the people did not matter, for the state was after all the expression of the people and was thinking and acting on their behalf for the common good. At the other extreme, we have pretended the state did not exist, and that the people knew best what they needed. We have too often forgotten that community visions do not always add up to national visions. In our enthusiasm for communities, we have ended up thinking that leadership has no role in teaching communities new needs and new visions.

We suggest that both the national visions projected by the developmental elite at the centre and the aspirations of the people expressed by the local communities must become part of the curriculum content, both of its organisation and its implementation. The key words here are collaboration and participation. All curricular plans must be validated by curriculum developers in collaboration with public and private interests at the various levels. At the local community level, the collective visions of the elite must be re-invented within local settings with the participation of the communities.

8.1 A Dialectical Model of Curriculum Development in Out-of-School Settings

The model on the next page suggests how the content, organisation and delivery of curricula must arise from a dialectic between the national vision and community aspirations. The instructional needs, resulting from a re-invention through participation, will consequently be related to the existing institutional realities, and specific solutions in regard to curriculum development and its delivery will have to be designed.


THE NATIONAL VISION
Curriculum Development Strategies (Content, Organization, Delivery)
INSTRUCTIONAL NEEDS
INSTITUTIONAL REALITIES
COMMUNITY ASPIRATIONS

gure 9: dialectical model of curriculum development in out-of-school settings (Bhola, 1977)

What does re-invention mean? It means that curriculum planning will be neither centralised nor decentralised; it will result from a transaction between curriculum planners and learners in the communities. It will be a relationship of exchange, collaborative validation, and creative invention. It will deal with the felt needs of the people while fashioning new needs as projected by the leadership. The calculus of means and ends will be mutually sanctioned. This process of re-invention will require that:

- national visions and instructional needs to implement those visions be well articulated;
- profiles of needs as seen by different interest groups and constituencies at the community level be developed; and
- a process of needs negotiation take place between and among various interests in order to determine what should be learned and how, and who should play the facilitator role.

6.2 Participation at the heart of the process

Participation lies at the heart of the process. The re-invention of curricular needs through needs negotiation in local settings assumes participation - in planning, implementation, and evaluation. This is by no means an easy task. We have to remember that participation can easily become manipulative. Sometimes, it may be consultative, and it may often be inauthentic. The following set of conditions must be fulfilled for participation to have a chance of being authentic:

- Normative re-education of the developmental elite and of the functionaries in post-literacy and continuing education programmes.
- Conscientisation of the people who know of their rights and feel sovereign.
- The learning of participative skills by leaders and followers, and teachers and learners.
- The designing of mediating institutions that can act as buffers between the power of the central bureaucracies and the relative powerlessness of communities.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The curriculum development process must be seen as open-ended. No plans, media and materials, or strategies for delivery should be considered final and good for all times. On the basis of experience in the field, there should be revisions, adaptations, and innovations. While curriculum development should be thus looked at as an experiment, research should not become a self-perpetuating exercise, independent of the purposes of instruction and development.

In the preceding we have presented various general principles and some models. The distinction between the "prescriptions of models" and the "restrictions of the real world" must be understood. Models should be used as norms for examining specific decisions. Exact exemplifications will seldom be possible. Curriculum developers, therefore, must strive to do the best job possible within the real constraints of their institutional resources and their social and political settings.

Finally, the curriculum developer must keep an eye on the meta-learning resulting from his or her teaching; by learning scientific agriculture, for example, farmers will also learn a generalised scientific attitude. That may give them, on the one hand, a sense of personal confidence, and, on the other hand, make them question their current beliefs. A curriculum developer must also be on the look-out for the dysfunctional consequences of functional teaching. The unanticipated consequences of our teaching and our social intervention must be uncovered and put right if need be.

NOTES

Some of the ideas and themes of this paper have come from earlier writings of the author on the same subject, among them:

(1) "Conceptualizing the Use of Learning Resources in Community Education for Community Action: An Integrative General Model", a paper prepared as consultant to the San Jose State University, USAID project, 1977.

(2) "Curriculum Development for Functional Literacy: Notes on a Dialectical Model", a paper presented at the International Seminar on Curriculum Development for Basic Education Programmes, June 12-21, 1978, West Berlin.

(3) "Curriculum Development for Functional Literacy and Nonformal Education Programmes", Bonn, West Germany: The German Foundation for International Development, 1979; and

(4) "Programme and Curriculum Development in the Post-Literacy Stages". Bonn, West Germany: The German Foundation for International Development, 1980.

ANNEXES

ANNEX 1

PARTICIPATING COUNTRIES

International Planning Meeting 8-12 December, 1980 in Hamburg

Bangladesh
Brazil
Burma
Cuba
India
Mali
Nigeria
Tanzania
United Kingdom
Venezuela

International Review Meeting and Orientation Seminar
12-23 October, 1981 in Hamburg

Bangladesh
Botswana
Brazil
Colombia
Costa Rica
Cuba
Egypt
Ethiopia
India
Indonesia
Iraq
Jamaica
Kenya
Mali
Mexico
Nepal
Nicaragua
Nigeria
Somalia
Sudan
Tanzania
Venezuela
Zambia
Zimbabwe

Regional (African) Planning Meeting 26-30 April, 1982 in Hamburg

Niger
Senegal
Upper Volta

Pan-African Orientation Seminar 16-27 August, 1982 in Nairobi

Benin
Burundi
Central African Rep
Congo
Ethiopia
Gambia
Ghana
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
Ivory Coast
Kenya
Liberia
Madagascar
Malawi
Mali
Mauritania
Niger
Nigeria
Rwanda
Senegal
Sierra Leone
Somalia
Swaziland
Togo
Uganda
United Rep of Cameroon
United Rep of Tanzania
Upper Volta
Zambia
Zimbabwe

In addition to these countries the following regional organisations also participated:

Unesco Regional Office for Education in Africa
African Adult Education Association
AFROLIT
CREAA
INADES/FORMATION

Regional (Asian) Planning Meeting 18-21 April, 1983 in Hamburg

China
Indonesia
Nepal
Thailand
Vietnam

Regional (Asian) Orientation Seminar
3-15 October, 1983 in New Delhi

Afghanistan
Bangladesh
China
Democratic People's Republic of Korea
India
Indonesia
Laos
Malaysia
Nepal
Pakistan
Papua New Guinea
Philippines
Republic of Korea
Sri Lanka
Thailand
Vietnam

Regional (Latin American and Caribbean) Planning Meeting
3-7 April 1984, in Hamburg

Colombia
Jamaica

Regional (Latin American and Caribbean) Orientation Seminar
24 September-6 October, 1984 in Caracas

Antigua & Barbuda
Argentina
Barbados
Belize
Bolivia
Brazil
Chile
Colombia
Commonwealth of Dominica
Costa Rica
Dominican Republic
Ecuador
El Salvador
Grenada
Guatemala
Guyana
Haiti
Honduras
Jamaica
Mexico
Nicaragua
Panama
Paraguay
Peru
Saint Lucia
Surinam
Uruguay
Venezuela

In addition to these countries the following regional organisations also participated:

Caribbean Council for Adult Education - CARCAE

Caribbean Network of Educational Innovation
for Development - CARNEID

Consejo de Educación de Adultos de América Latina
(Latin American Council for Adult Education) - CEAAL

Centro Regional de Educación de Adultos y Alfabetización
Funcional para América Latina - CREFAL

Oficina Regional de Educación de la Unesco para América
Latina y el Caribe (Unesco Regional Office for Education
in Latin America and the Caribbean) - OREALC

Ministerio de Agricultura y Cría - MAC

Ministerio de Justicia

Instituto Nacional de Cooperación Educativa - INCE

Instituto Agrario Nacional - IAN

Instituto de Capacitación Agrícola - INAGRO

Consejo Nacional de la Cultura - CONAC

Instituto Radiofónico Fe y Alegría

Centro al Servicio de la Acción Popular - CESAP

Asociación Cultural para el Desarrollo - ACUDE

Unión Venezolana de CEP Centros de Educación Popular

Fundación por Trujillo

Regional (Arab) Planning Meeting 3-6 September, 1986 in Hamburg

Egypt	Kuwait

Regional (Arab) Orientation Seminar 28 October - 8 November, 1985 in Hamburg

Bahrain
Egypt
Iraq
Kuwait
Libya
Mauritania
Morocco
Somalia
Sudan
Syria
Tunisia
United Arab Emirates
Yemen Arab Republic
Yemen, People's Democratic Republic

ANNEX 2

LIST OF DOCUMENTS

International and Regional Approach Papers

1. Some Curricular Aspects of Post-literacy and Continuing Education of Neo-literates
by H S Bhola

2. Issues in Post-literacy
by Anil Bordia

3. Post-literacy in the Francophone Countries of Africa
by Paul Lengrand

National Case Studies

A. *Africa*

1. Post-literacy Activities and Continuing Education of Adults in Nigeria
by Charles O Akinde

2. The Development of Learning Strategies for the Post-literacy and Continuing Education of Neo-literates in the Perspective of Lifelong Education in Senegal
by Frédéric Badiane

3. The Development of Learning Strategies for Post-literacy and Continuing Education of Neo-literates in Upper-Volta in the Perspective of Lifelong Education
by Paul Taryam Ilboudo

4. The Lifelong Education Centre (FEP) and Other Learning Strategies for Post-literacy in Niger
by Kanê Oumarou

5. The Development of Learning Strategies for the Post-literacy and Continuing Education of Neo-literates in Kenya in the Perspective of Lifelong Education
by David Macharia

6. Learning Strategies for Post-literacy and Continuing Education in Tanzania
by Z J Mpogolo

7. Rural Newspapers and Other Learning Strategies for Post-literacy and Basic Education in Mali
by Adama Ouane

B. *Asia*

1. Post-literacy and Continuing Education of Neo-literates in Bangladesh
by A F M Nurul Alam

2. Learning Strategies for Post-literacy and Continuing Education in Nepal
by Lekh Nath Belbase

3. Learning Strategies for Literacy Follow-up and Complementary Education in the Context of Lifelong Education in Vietnam
by Le Son

4. Anti-illiteracy, Post-literacy and Continuing Education in the People's Republic of China
by Li Jiyuan

5. Learning Strategies for Post-literacy and Continuing Education in India
by D V Sharma

6. The Development of Learning Strategies for Post-literacy and Continuing Education of the Neo-literates in the Perspective of Lifelong Education in Indonesia
by A Iskandar, U Sihombing, P Sudrajat, A Santosa, Triyadi, A Djabar and Suyono

7. The Development of Learning Strategies for Post-literacy and Continuing Education of Neo-literates in the Perspective of Lifelong Education in Thailand
by Niched Suntornpithug

C. *Latin America and the Caribbean*

1. The Development of Learning Strategies for Post-literacy and Continuing Education in Jamaica
by Miriam Moulton-Campbell

2. Post-literacy and Lifelong Education of New Literates in Brazil
by Lena María do Carmo Chaves / Vilma Galvão under the supervision of Ana María Coutinho

3. Literacy, Post-literacy and Continuing Education Programmes in the Perspective of Lifelong Education in Colombia
by Lino Hurtado Bolivar

4. Post-literacy and Continuing Education of Neo-literates in Cuba
by A M R Lucero / R G Hevia / R R Aguilera
under the direction of Abel Prieto Morales

5. The Development of Learning Strategies for the Post-literacy and Continuing Education of Neo-literates in the Perspective of Lifelong Education in Venezuela
by Antonio Valbuena Paz

D. *Arab States*

1. Learning Strategies for Post-literacy and Continuing Education in Algeria
by Abdullatif Fetni

2. Learning Strategies for Post-literacy and Continuing Education in the Perspective of Lifelong Education in the Arab Republic of Egypt
by Abdel Fattah Galal and Sami Nassar

3. Development of Learning Strategies for Literacy, Post-literacy and Continuing Education in Kuwait
by Jacoub A. Al Sharah and Deeb Abdulla Khabbas

A	List of Participants
B	A Note on the Orientation Seminar on Post-literacy and Continuing Education in the Perspective of Lifelong Education by Ravindra H Dave
C	Tentative Daily Time Schedule
D/A	Guidelines for Local Level Action: Proposed Format to be used by Participants
D/B	Guidelines for Local/Regional Action produced by Participants
D/C	1. The Ethiopian National Literacy Campaign Appeal by M. Amadou-Mahtar M'Bow Director-General of Unesco
	2. Preliminary Report of the National Board of Adult Education's Committee on Post-literacy and Follow-up Programmes Prepared by the Directorate of Adult Education, New Delhi
D/D	1. The Mexico Declaration
	2. Recommendation by the Quito Meeting on the Major Project on Education in Latin America and the Caribbean
E	1. The World Literacy Situation 1970, 1980 and 1990
	2. Illiteracy in Context by E A Fisher
F	1. Literacy Situation in Africa (some statistical data)
	2. Literacy Situation in Asia and the Pacific (some statistical data)
	3. Literacy Situation in Latin America and the Caribbean (some statistical data)

4. Literacy Situation in the Arab States (some statistical data)

G Some Definitions and Comments relating to Literacy and Post-literacy Learning: quotations from selected sources

H Some Definitions and Comments relating to Lifelong

quotations from selected sources

I Some Definitions and Comments relating to Basic Education: quotations from selected sources

J Some Definitions and Comments relating to Learning Strategies: quotations from selected sources

K Language Issues and Language Building: some aspects to be considered

L Museums and Exhibitions as Learning Resources in the Community
by Professor Gottfried Hausmann

M Learning Strategies for Neo-literates: The Vocational Component of Basic Education
by Gert Loose

N Evaluation of ducation eforms and rogrammes: some aspects to be considered

O Communication and Education
by Henri Dieuzeide

P Folk Media as a Learning Strategy: some aspects to be considered

Q Designing a System of Evaluation and Monitoring for Literacy and Post-Literacy Programmes
by Ravindra H Dave

R Issues Concerning Literacy, Post-literacy and Continuing Education of Women

S Some Definitions, Comments and Experiences on the se of New Media in Initial and Continuing Education: extracts from selected sources

ANNEX 3

PARTICIPANTS IN THE INTERNATIONAL PLANNING MEETING 8-12 DECEMBER, 1980 IN HAMBURG

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ANNEX 4

PARTICIPANTS IN THE INTERNATIONAL REVIEW MEETING AND ORIENTATION SEMINAR 12-23 OCTOBER, 1981 IN HAMBURG

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